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The University of North Carolina at Greensboro ED.D. 1984

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THE ROLE OF THE FOUR-YEAR COLLEGE IN ADDRESSING THE DEVELOPMENTAL NEEDS OF FACULTY DURING MIDDLE-AGE AND OLD-AGE TRANSITION PERIODS

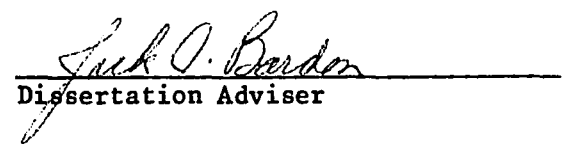
by

Mary Rosalind Picot

A Dissertation Submitted to
the Faculty of the Graduate School at
The University of North Carolina at Greensboro
in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Education

Greensboro
1984

Approved by



Dissertation Adviser

APPROVAL PAGE

This dissertation has been approved by the following committee of the Faculty of the Graduate School at The University of North Carolina at Greensboro.

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October 30, 1984
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PICOT, MARY ROSALIND. The Role of the Four-Year College in Addressing the Developmental Needs of Faculty During Middle-Age and Old-Age Transition Periods. (1984)
Directed by Dr. Jack I. Bardon. Pp. 323

The purposes of this study were (a) to design a model for faculty development that would address the needs of four-year college faculty members during the transition periods of middle age and old age; (b) to see if any colleges were engaged in activities resembling the model to address this issue; (c) to identify and study one college in depth that is doing something resembling the model; and (d) to adjust the model depending on the findings.

The model was designed from an extensive review of the literature in faculty development, adult development, and organization development. The colleges surveyed were the 166 level-II, four-year colleges accredited by the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools as of December 1982. One college was selected for in-depth study based on the approximation of its responses to predetermined criteria taken from the model.

The model addresses the developmental needs of middle-aged and older faculty during transition periods through the total faculty development program. Based on theories of adult development, organization development, and systems, it describes the premises, characteristics, and elements of a faculty development program which views the personal, professional, and career development of faculty members as an integrated whole.

The survey yielded a 75.3% rate of return and revealed the following: (a) colleges are offering distinct faculty development activities, but there appear to be very few theory-based programs; (b) on average, very little money is available for faculty development; (c) about half the colleges are doing something to address the developmental needs of older faculty, but very little that is different from what is being done for all other faculty members; and (d) there is a moderate pattern of relationships among three major components of the proposed model: a budget for faculty development, a written policy for faculty development, and institutional concern for the developmental needs of middle-aged and older faculty members during transition periods.

The in-depth study of a model college exemplified key characteristics of the proposed model in action and suggested practical ways to implement the model. The results of both the survey of colleges and the in-depth study of one college reinforced the need for a model to address this issue.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Among the factors affecting higher education today are several which make administrators anxious about the future of their institutions. Five such factors are (a) declining enrollments, (b) tenure policies, (c) decrease in faculty mobility, (d) higher age of retirement, and (e) financial constraints (Carnegie Council on Policy Studies in Higher Education [CCPSHE], 1980; Centra, 1977a, 1977b); Chait & Gueths, 1981; Keller, 1983; Palmer & Patton, 1981; Shulman, 1983; Watson & Nelson, 1982; Weiler, 1981). Each of these factors affects the others; e.g., decreased enrollment leads to a smaller number of job openings for new faculty.

The National Center for Educational Statistics (USNCES) (1978) reported an increase of 156,000 full-time faculty positions in the United States between 1966 and 1976. However, in their projections of educational statistics to 1986-1987, the USNCES estimated an increase of only 12,000 positions between 1976 and 1986. The Carnegie Council (CCPSHE, 1980) reported that in the early 1970s there were about 35,000 new appointments per year, while in 1980 there would be about 11,000 new appointments. New appointments include replacements for reasons of death, retirement, or transfer. Net additions of full-time equivalent (FTE) faculty in the 1960s were approximately 21,000; they are estimated to be near zero in 1980-1985 and negative from 1985 on (Carnegie Council, 1980).

Because there are fewer job openings, employed faculty tend to stay put. Tenure policies also dispose faculty to retain the security of present employment and curtail administration's ability to replace nonproductive faculty with new hires. Financial constraints imposed on institutions, which rely on enrollment for ongoing financial support, prohibit adding new faculty positions. Federal legislation has pushed the retirement age to 70. The overall effect of these factors combined is to raise the median age of faculty. Cartter (1976) predicted that under controlled conditions of (a) zero net flow of senior personnel, (b) constant student-faculty ratios, (c) 60% new hires with the doctorate, and (d) no change in retirement policy of age 65, the median age of full-time college faculty would go from age 43 in 1972 to 45 in 1980 to 49 in 1990. He further predicted that: "Teachers 35 and under would decline from 25 percent in 1972 to 12.5 percent by 1990, while those over 60 would rise from 7.6 percent to 14.8 percent" (Cartter, 1976, p. 172). The Carnegie Council (CCPSHE, 1980) identified the modal age of tenured faculty in four-year institutions in 1980 (2/3 of the total work force) as 36-45. However, by the year 2000, the estimate is 56-65, with far more faculty 66 years of age and over than 35 and younger.

Given these facts regarding the age of faculty and the decreased number of positions available, the potential effect on the institution is reduced exposure to new ideas brought to campuses by recently graduated, energetic, ambitious, young educators and scholars. The Carnegie Commission (CCPSHE, 1980) described the older faculty as "less resilient in adjustment to new fields that come along; farther removed

from the age of the students, . . . of the home guard type, . . . [less] eager to be on their way somewhere else . . . [adding] to the number of time servers on campus" (p. 25). The problem for institutions will be how to stay vital. Since colleges can no longer rely on new faculty members to promote the institution's vitality (Centra, 1978a), they must find other ways.

Although some authors have suggested early retirement (Gross, 1977; Palmer & Patton, 1981; Weiler, 1981) and career change (Baldwin et al., 1981; Benner & Potter, 1981; Gross, 1977; Palmer & Patton, 1981) as qualitative and quantitative ways of addressing this issue, it is questionable that such alternatives, if followed, will substantially increase the number of new openings for young faculty. Early retirement, although potentially attractive to some, is not financially feasible due to effects of inflation (CCPSHE, 1980). Career change, although contemplated by many academics, has, among other restraints, an unclear future, especially if the number of academic "mid-career migrants" increases and thereby taxes the number of jobs available in business, industry, or other professions (Palmer & Patton, 1981).

Statement of the Problem

For the period of 1980-2000, institutions must both acknowledge the rising median age of faculty and consider how to keep the growing number of middle-aged and old-aged faculty members renewed, creatively producing as teachers and researchers, and actively providing service to the community.

How does an institution address the problem of keeping middle-aged and old-aged faculty renewed? Are existing faculty development programs, where they do exist, adequate to do this? Is there something different, additional, or unique that should distinguish faculty development programs aimed specifically at this issue from those programs designed for the entire faculty? What should be the characteristics and components of such faculty development programs?

Ongoing Renewal of Middle-age and Old-age Faculty

Historically, faculty development was of limited concern to college and university faculty members or to administrators before 1970 (Stordahl, 1981). The 1970s and early 1980s have brought a plethora of literature on faculty development. During the 1970s, the emphasis was on instructional improvement (W. P. O'Connell, personal communication, May 17, 1983). Freedman, Brown, Ralph, Shukraft, Bloom, and Sanford (1979) summarized what has been done regarding faculty development: (a) most efforts have been directed toward instructional improvement; (b) the majority of remaining programs center on the teacher's attitudes and feelings with little or no basis in psychological, sociological, or social psychological theory; and (c) there has been focus on the organization--how to provide environments conducive to faculty development and effective teaching.

More recently, several authors have suggested an approach to faculty development that would integrate instructional, organizational, and personal development (Bergquist & Phillips, 1975); faculty development, instructional development, and organization development (Gaff, 1976); faculty development as it relates to the person, the professional, the organization, and the community beyond the organization (Bergquist & Phillips, 1977). Most recently, Bergquist and Phillips (1981) have put forth a holistic model linking instructional, personal, organization, and individual career development.

Numerous authors have suggested directions for the future of faculty development (Anderson & North, 1978; Becker, 1981; Bergquist & Phillips, 1975, 1977, 1981; Bess, 1975; Cole, 1982; Gaff, 1977; Gaff & Wilson, 1971; Hipps, 1982; Nelsen & Siegel, 1980; Preus & Williams, 1979; Rutherford, 1982; Simerly 1976; Smith & Ovard, 1979; Stice, 1976-1977; Wurster & McCartney, 1980). Suggested future frameworks include the concepts of stage development; the organizational perspective; and the use of socialization, motivational, and change theories to facilitate faculty development.

Still others have reported on categories and the success of programs (Blackburn et al., 1980; Crow, Milton, Moomaw, & O'Connell, 1976; Gaff, 1976; Nelsen & Siegel, 1980; Teather, 1979).

Some authors have directly addressed the particular situation of middle-aged and old-aged faculty by incorporating principles that fall within the recommended future frameworks referred to above (Braskamp et al., 1982; Cytrynbaum, Lee, & Wadner, 1982; Entrekin & Everett, 1981;

Heffernan, 1979; Schurr, 1980; Watson & Nelson, 1982).

Bess (1975) described faculty at mid-career as experiencing ennui:

> They have come to some understanding of the limits of their capacities in their work, and they are aware that their lack of certain critical skills may hinder their future achievements and career progress. They begin to question their identities and self-concepts, wondering if their views of themselves are valid and whether and how they might change in the future (p. 316).

Cytrynbaum et al. (1982) contrasted well-adjusted with maladjusted midlife and older adults, describing the latter as being:

> laden with debilitating anxiety and an increased sense of vulnerability that may ultimately set the stage for later low level or acute psychological and emotional distress. Psychopathology may occur for the first time in some midlife and older adults. Other midlife or old adults may encounter a resurgence of latent conflicts which remain unsolved. Such developmental vulnerabilities and potentialities could predispose older faculty who have been relatively productive and adaptive to develop symptoms requiring treatment during the second half of life. (p. 20)

Baldwin and Blackburn (1981), in a study of 106 male college faculty members, summarized self-reported characteristics of male, full professors within five years of retirement from liberal arts colleges:

> Quite limited goals for the remainder of their professional career
> Gradually withdrawing from various responsibilities
> Fear their knowledge is out-of-date
> Somewhat isolated from their younger colleagues
> Try to cope with problems independently
> Generally content with their career achievements
> Particularly comfortable with service to their department or college
> Only half will take advantage of formal professional growth opportunities. (p. 609)

In the same study, Baldwin and Blackburn found that full professors more than five years from retirement described themselves in these ways:

> At a career turning point
> Reduced enthusiasm for teaching and research
> Sometimes question the value of the academic career
> Must decide to continue same career activities or move in different directions (choice between stagnation and diversification)
> Seek to extend career (influence) beyond own campus through consultation, professional organizations
> Limited opportunities for change; advancement can lead to disillusionment at this stage. (p. 609)

Mayhew (1977) described the steady state of higher education as characterized by an aging faculty, many of whom are tenured, and all of whom are believed to need regular professional self-renewal. Gross (1977) used stronger terms: "Because with advancing age people generally lose flexibility and undergo declines in energy and motivation, even in intelligence, it is easy to imagine a professoriate slowly flagging in research productivity and becoming increasingly inflexible in the face of changing pedagogical needs" (p. 752). Still another author painted an even gloomier picture:

> There seems little cause for optimism given this somewhat dispiriting portrait of the academic profession and the hard facts about the prospects for higher education. More importantly, however, faculty gloom seems to result from the dissonance in their lives between their expectations for their academic careers and their actual career paths. For most academics, higher education no longer promises the excitement of prestigious careers, rapid advancements, and professional prerogatives that it did through the 1960's (sic). What seems called for is a new model of the academic values, such as the pursuit of knowledge, with the changing environment in higher education and faculty's real career profile. (Shulman, 1979, p. 53)

In a study of more that 500 faculty members at a wide range of higher education institutions, Freedman and Sanford (1973) found pervasive unease and confusion, a lack of professional identity, a sense of vulnerability--in short, a malaise among college faculty. They called for faculty development programs to consider faculty members as highly complex individuals who must be challenged to acquire professional knowledge of themselves and their institution. Writing again about faculty development, Freedman et al. (1979) made a strong case for personal development of faculty:

> Good teaching . . . depends more on the inner state of the faculty member, on his or her attitudes and values. Where the major concern is the inner state of faculty members too often they are offered only consciousness-raising or encounter groups. Again they are potentially useful activities, but they are limited as well. Such groups are most unlikely to produce change of consequence among faculty members in the absence of structural change in the organization or unless such groups provide experiences informed by a coherent body of theory concerning personality change in faculty members. (p. ix)

Assuming the validity of these viewpoints about faculty attitudes in general, the projected age profile of faculty members over the next 20 years, and the characteristics of middle-aged and older faculty, in particular, what can be done to change the situation so that (a) faculty members who are currently middle-aged or older can be renewed; (b) faculty members who are currently young can have the promise of ongoing renewal and professional productivity; (c) institutions can provide the opportunities for addressing the specific needs of middle-aged and older faculty; (d) institutions can be revitalized through the renewal of their most important resource (Gaff & Wilson, 1971; Preus & Williams, 1979; Simerly, 1976), their faculty?

Definitions

The following definitions of key terms will be utilized in this study.

Faculty Development

The meaning of faculty development has evolved from a focus on instructional improvement to a broader view that adds the dimensions of professional and personal development of faculty members. Specific definitions include the following components: designing programs to meet the individual needs of faculty members and develop them to their full potential (Stice, 1976-1977); "concern for the total person--the knowledge, skills, attitudes and temperament which contribute to effective teaching" (Preus & Williams, 1979, p. 4); "the proper development of the individual faculty members, and that is primarily a function of his integrity--professional, societal, personal" (Bergquist & Phillips, 1981, p. 35); "a matter of . . . restoring an individual to a right relationship with himself, with students, and with the society of which he is a part" (Bergquist & Phillips, 1981, p. 336); and all the professional, instructional, curricular change, and organizational change activities which can improve faculty members as teachers, scholars, advisers, and contributors to campus academic life (Nelsen, 1979). The Resource Center for Planned Change of the American Association of State Colleges and Universities (1976) summed up all these components by stating that faculty development is "those organized efforts by an institution that are designed to aid faculty and staff members to do what they are doing--or to help them find another way to

move forward" (p. ii).

For the purposes of this study, faculty development is defined as all those activities and programs, formal and informal, provided by the institution, that promote professional and personal growth, insofar as they affect the professional life of the individual faculty member. Development, in this context, is defined as "dealing with experience in increasingly sophisticated and complex ways and being able to integrate this complexity into stable structures" (Ralph, 1978, p. 61).

Adult Development

Adult development refers to the orderly and sequential changes that occur in persons beyond the adolescent period, whether they are rooted in the biological time clock or caused by interaction with the social environment, and without regard to the direction of change, i.e., growth and expansion or decline (Neugarten, 1977).

Developmental Tasks

Developmental tasks (Havighurst, 1972, 1980) are markers of change during the lifespan which have biological, psychological, and sociological components. They need not occur in sequence, although most persons experience them in approximately the same sequence. There is an optimum time for each to occur and be resolved.

Stage Theories

The concept of stage theories as postulated by Piaget, Kohlberg, and Loevinger describes life as being in successive stages which are qualitatively different, occur in invariant and irreversible order, and are arranged in ascending order. Erikson's theory of ego development differs slightly because the adult stages are not linked closely with chronological age nor do the stages mutually exclude each other (Neugarten, 1977).

Life Periods

Life periods are socially defined and psychologically meaningful markers of life, time, or age, which are more generalized and more commonly used than stages or tasks (Neugarten, 1977).

Life Crises vs. Life Transitions

There is considerable literature discussing the issue of life crises vs. life transitions. For the purposes of this paper, Caplan's (1964) definition of crisis as a period of disequilibrium during which the person's resources are not sufficient to deal with the problem at hand and Levinson et al.'s (Levinson, Darrow, Klein, Levinson, McKee, 1978) definition of transition as periods during which persons reassess their life structures and form new ones, will be accepted, with the understanding that transitions may or may not be periods of crisis, depending on the person's capacity to move forward.

Middle Age and Old Age

The literature is unclear on the question of defining the chronological age at which a person is considered "middle-aged." Likewise, there is a difference in the chronological age associated with middle age for males and females. This writer identifies the period around forty years of age to be that of midlife transition, with the subsequent period of age, late forties to fifty-five, being a period of restabilization. Old-age transition is designated as the pre-retirement period of 56-64 years of age.

Purposes of the Study

The purposes of this study are the following:

(1) To suggest a model of faculty development specifically designed to address the developmental needs of college faculty members who are going through the transition periods of middle age and old age.

(2) To determine by survey questionnaire whether four-year colleges are concerned about the issue of meeting the developmental needs of middle-aged and old-aged faculty; and, if so, to determine whether their faculty development programs include major components emerging from the suggested model. These major components have emerged from the survey of the literature and include emphasis on individual needs, evidence that the entire college is involved, the use of an internal consultant to help improve the academic life of the faculty, evidence of a systems approach, a variety of programs and activities linked by being

grounded in adult development and systems theories, the availability of personal counseling, and an indication that there is awareness of the need to address the issue of middle-aged and older faculty through faculty development.

(3) To ascertain the extent to which the developmental needs of middle-aged and older faculty members are being addressed by four-year colleges.

(4) To identify one college that has addressed this issue in its faculty development programs, as revealed by the data base from the questionnaire results, and to study this college in depth by doing on-site, semi-structured interview(s).

(5) To adjust the suggested model according to the data from the questionnaire and the in-depth study of one college.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

In order to address the role of the institution in helping faculty through middle-age and old-age transition periods, it was necessary to review two overlapping areas of literature: faculty development and adult human development. The major objective of this review was to establish the rationale for the model which is described in Chapter III.

Faculty Development

History

Until the 1970s, faculty development was concerned with helping faculty stay "current in their disciplines, providing resources for research and publication, and stimulating continued intellectual growth and excitement" (Bergquist & Phillips, 1981, p. 327). Emphasis was placed on reduced student/teacher ratio, technology, and the recruitment of new PhDs with fresh ideas (Bergquist & Phillips, 1981). During the 1970s, the emphasis was on improving teaching (Mayhew, 1977; W. P. O'Connell, personal communication, May 17, 1983). A summary of the programs and activities characteristic of the 1970s includes training programs, consultations of administrator with faculty members, special administrative offices for faculty development, conferences and workshops, using experts to teach new techniques, altered reward systems to include teaching, mid-career change opportunities, professional

development through travel, reduced teacher loads for junior faculty, lectures on professional development, systematic programs to enhance the instructional ability of junior faculty members, use of student evaluations of faculty for administrative decisions, and establishment of faculty development centers to improve instruction (Mayhew, 1977).

As part of a survey to determine the current state of the art in faculty development, Centra (1978a) sent a questionnaire to 2600 accredited institutions, from which came 1800 responses. He then sent a more detailed survey instrument to the 1,044 institutions that had a person responsible for faculty development. Centra factor-analyzed the results to identify four types of faculty development programs in use: high faculty involvement (workshops, master teachers, personal development, informal peer assessment, etc.); instructional-assistance practices (use of specialists, technology, workshops); traditional practices (sabbaticals, grants, annual teacher excellence awards, visiting-scholar programs); and emphasis on assessment (by students and administrators).

Lindquist (1981) traced the history of faculty development during the 1970s through its proponents: (a) Mervin Freedman and Nevitt Sanford (1973), an article on the importance of personal development of faculty; (b) The Group for Human Development in Higher Education and Change magazine (1974), "Faculty development in a time of retrenchment in 1974"; (c) William Bergquist and Stephen Phillips (1975, 1977, 1981), Handbook for Faculty Development; (d) Jerry Gaff (1975), Toward faculty renewal (a model of faculty development); (e) Arthur Chickering

(1976), conceptual frameworks for faculty development using adult development theory; (f) Harold Hodgkinson (1974), faculty and administrative career stages based on Levinson's stages of life; and (g) Illinois State University and Kansas City Regional Council for Higher Education (Lindquist, 1978a), personal and career assistance to faculty.

The 1970s were also the years during which foundations funded faculty renewal programs with the belief that such renewal would change attitudes and practices of faculty. State and federal governments, private foundations, and higher education institutions embarked on programs such as the Fund for the Improvement of Post-Secondary Education (FIPSE), the Lilly Foundation, the Hazen Foundation, and the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education (Mayhew, 1977).

Faculty development, besides emphasizing instructional concerns, was beginning to be concerned about professional, personal, career, and organization areas as well.

Definitions of Faculty Development

Definitions of faculty development today center on the concept of development (Bergquist & Phillips, 1981; Freedman et al., 1979; Stice, 1976-1977), the concept of the whole person (Bergquist & Phillips, 1981; Freedman et al., 1979; Preus & Williams), and the efforts of the institution to promote that development (The American Association of State Colleges and Universities, 1976; Stice, 1976-1977). Nelsen (1979) concentrates on the performance of faculty in his definition of

faculty development: "all those activities designed to improve the performance of faculty as teachers, scholars, advisers, and contributors to campus academic life" (p. 2). In this definition, he included professional, instructional, curricular, and organizational change. Gaff (1975) concentrated on the instructional component of faculty development: "enhancing the talents, expanding the interests, improving the competence and otherwise facilitating the professional and personal growth of faculty members, particularly in their role as instructors" (p. 14). Bergquist & Phillips (1981) focused on the development of the individual in relation to self, students, and society.

Emphases

Different authorities assign different emphases to faculty development: professional, instructional, personal, career, and organization development. Within each of those categories there is an overlap of meaning; e.g., some authors treat instructional development as part of professional development.

Bergquist & Phillips developed a three-volume series on faculty development, the first of which (1975) conceptualized faculty development as instructional improvement (curriculum development, diagnosis of teaching, and training), as personal development (growth promotion through developing interpersonal skills and career counseling), and as organization development (improvement of the institutional environment, team building and managerial development). In their second volume, Bergquist and Phillips (1977) emphasized the overlapping of organization development, personal development,

professional development, and development through service to the outside community. In their third volume, Bergquist and Phillips (1981) identified career development as a separate component of faculty development. Gaff (1975) spoke of faculty renewal with three components: instructional (curriculum and course design), organization, and faculty (affective and teaching behavior) development.

Nelsen (1979), describing the results of a survey regarding the effectiveness of faculty development efforts, divided activities into four areas:

> professional development--scholarship, improved research skills, broadening of scholarly areas; instructional development--pedagogy, improved teaching skills, learning of new techniques; curricular change--introduction of new courses, significant changes in current offerings development of interdisciplinary courses; and organizational change--introduction of new campus-wide goals, organizational changes designed to facilitate faculty renewal. (p. 2)

Professional Development

By using professional development as a broad term to include development of curriculum, instructional improvement, and knowledge of one's discipline, it is possible to identify several approaches. Lindquist (1981) stated that professional development can treat the person, the task, and the situation. These approaches could complement each other. He saw faculty development as adult development. For Ciampa (1980), the aim of faculty development was instructional improvement. Gross (1977) saw professional growth occurring as faculty members stay professionally current and improve their communication skills. He stated that a solid program of professional growth will

"recognize the facts of increasing psychological rigidity and of declining intellect in the general case . . . [but will] offer a modest measure of real hope" (p. 753) for professional growth.

According to the study of 20 colleges conducted by Nelsen and Siegel (1980), faculty development programs related to professional growth were rated most successful as compared with other programs. This finding was based on independent ratings reported by interviewers of faculty, administrators and some students. Interestingly, the high level of overall program effectiveness correlated positively with higher scores on program management, i.e., the effectiveness of the management and administration of the faculty development program. Likewise, Blackburn et al. (1980) conducted an evaluation of faculty development programs through the Ann Arbor Center for the Study of Higher Education and found that faculty members rated "improved teaching" as the primary desire. Faculty gave "manuscript preparation and publication" the highest average rankings, and "desire to improve interpersonal skills" the second highest average rankings of faculty professional development needs. These two studies, reflecting faculty evaluations of faculty development, demonstrate faculty receptivity to professional development efforts, an issue to be addressed later in this report.

Personal Development

If it is true that human beings are the most important resource on the campus, then it follows that the institution must be concerned about faculty members as persons. Wurster and McCartney (1980) described faculty as "inherently complex, highly sensitive, sometimes fragile, but persistently creative persons who presume the delicate, often subtle, task of shaping and stimulating the human spirit and intellect, and who also assume the awesome responsibility of expanding the frontiers of knowledge" (p. 14).

Eble (1976) described teachers as relational beings and called for a humanistic approach to teaching by skilled professionals who use all the resources helpful to teaching. "The center of all teaching and learning is the interaction between the teacher and the learner. The personal cannot and should not be set aside. Information and skills become important as they serve individual and social ends, ends inextricably bound up with our values and our perceptions" (p. xi).

Likewise, Freedman et al. (1979) made a strong case for personal development of faculty: "One may say of the current state of the art of faculty development that its major focus is on educational technology. This is not bad in and of itself, but it is surely limited. Good teaching, for example, depends more on the inner state of the faculty member, on his or her attitudes and values" (p. ix). They found that programs directed at the inner state of faculty members are limited to consciousness raising and encounter groups. Hipps (1982) found similar limitations:

> If personal development is viewed more specifically in relationship to the problems individuals face throughout their careers, then some issues that may be pertinent are dealing with mid-career crisis, long-range career planning, retirement planning, career transitions, dealing with professional disappointment, value clarification, and resolution of personal crises brought on by such events as illness, divorce, or death of a loved one. Apparently, not many programs deal with these issues directly. (p. 62)

Lindquist (1981) identified the need to address the personal dimension in faculty development programs including adult transitions, anxieties about change, tedium, and difficult work. Stordahl (1981) referred to the personal development/personal involvement component found in the literature and concluded that: "Authors seemed to agree that the problems faculty members have in their personal lives have a direct bearing on their effectiveness as professors and personal involvement by faculty members provides motivation as well as assurance that individual needs will be met" (p. 1).

Nelsen and Siegel (1979) found no examples of faculty development which had a primary focus on personal development in their study of 20 colleges, referred to earlier. Bergquist and Phillips (1981) offered the following reasons for that absence: (a) faculty members consider programs on their own career development irrelevant; (b) faculty members consider personal growth activities to be threatening; (c) personal growth programming goes against the culture of American higher education because of the primary importance assigned to cognitive rationality, individuality, and autonomy; and (d) skilled facilitators of personal growth activities are lacking in number. Centra (1978b), however, found that small colleges tended to provide counseling and other personal development activities for the faculty. He concluded

this is due to the small colleges' emphasis on close, personal relationships. He also found more informal assessments by colleagues and more self-assessment in small colleges. Most of these programs were run by and for the faculty.

Despite the limited emphasis on personal development, accepted authorities seem to speak in favor of programs which address personal development issues.

Organization Development

Several authors have discussed the relationship between faculty development and organization development. Bergquist and Phillips (1981), agreeing with a position taken by Gaff (1975), based their definition of organization development on the premise that "what faculty can and will do as professionals is a consequence of the nature of the organization within which they find themselves" (p. 182). They go even further by suggesting a perspective for faculty development different from that used in the first two volumes of their handbook: organization development as the overall organizing theme under which are subsumed issues such as faculty, administrative, and staff development. This position seems to be related to Kahn's (1974) view of organizational structure: the structure of an organization is the pattern of actual recurring behavior and nothing else.

In their study of 20 colleges already referred to, Nelsen and Siegel (1980) determined that only six colleges were trying organizational development strategies, e.g., designing and implementing a new committee structure, as a means of addressing faculty development. Yet, many of the faculty interviewed throughout the study stated their belief that institutional support through structural change, such as altering the reward system to encourage faculty innovativeness, is necessary for faculty development efforts to succeed. These findings suggest a discrepancy between what institutions are providing for faculty development and what faculty perceive as necessary to promote faculty development. They also found that "faculty development activities achieve their greatest success when they are related, somehow, to institutional mission, and when they palpably influence the achievement of that mission" (p. 139).

Stice (1976-1977) focused organization development directly on the teaching/learning environment:

> Organization development attempts to create a concern for teaching and learning within an institution and an environment that encourages them. The scope ranges all the way from facilities planning through interpersonal relationships within the department, the college and the institution, to modifying existing policies or creating new ones to create an atmosphere that fosters the main mission of the university--teaching and learning (p. 80).

Lindquist (1981) continued this theme by promoting an organizational perspective that would enable openness and trust, facilitate identification and solving of problems, encourage support and respect for the institution's members as persons, and provide systematic structures and rewards for improving professional activities. Lindquist's position seems to point toward organization development as

the focusing device for faculty development efforts.

Career Development

Bergquist and Phillips (1981) believed the recognition of career development by institutions of higher education was the result of institutions' concern over retrenchment and of increased interest in adult development and its subsequent implications for career development. The authors argued that attention be given to career development for the following reasons: (a) ethical concerns over the institution's responsibility to assist faculty being terminated to find new careers; (b) the advantage to the institution from the personal and professional growth of faculty; (c) the faculty's benefiting from taking active responsibility for their own career development and from helping their students to do the same; and (d) both faculty's and institution's benefiting from learning about adult development.

Schein (1978) discussed the importance of having a career anchor, which he defined as

> 1. Self-perceived talents and abilities (based on actual successes in variety of work settings);
> 2. Self-perceived motives and needs (based on opportunities for self-tests and self-diagnosis in real situations and on feedback from others);
> 3. Self-perceived attitudes and values (based on actual encounters between self and the norms and values of the employing organizational and work settings). (p. 125)

Establishment of such career anchors would be facilitated by a systematic program of faculty development which would satisfy the rationale set forth by Bergquist and Phillips and provide a framework for career anchors to be developed.

Becker and Strauss (as cited in Neugarten, 1968) stressed the interdependence of careers, personal identity, and structure:

> Members of structures that change, riders on escalators that carry them up, along, and down to unexpected places and to novel experiences even when in some sense foreseen, must gain, maintain, and retain a sense of personal identity. . . . Stabilities in the organization of behavior and of self-regard are inextricably dependent upon stabilities of social structure. Likewise, change ('development') is shaped by those patterned transactions which accompany career movement. The crises and turning points of life are not entirely institutionalized, but their occurrence and the terms which define and help to solve them are illuminated when seen in the context of career lines. (p. 320)

Baldwin and Blackburn (1981) from their research on an all-male sample of 106 college professors in twelve liberal arts colleges in the midwest identified characteristics and experiences at five stages of the academic career: assistant professors with three or fewer years of experience, assistant professors with more than three years' experience, associate professors, full professors more than five years from retirement, and full professors within five years of retirement. Their conclusions stress the developmental nature of careers and challenge institutions and faculty to recognize the different characteristics and concerns of each career stage, to maintain flexibility necessary to promote growth at each stage, and to treat each faculty member as an individual.

Braskamp et al. (1982) did a similar study of 48 faculty members (42 males and 6 females) at a major research university. They linked faculty development with the career stages of assistant, associate, and full professors. As a result of the structured interviews, the authors concluded that:

> The career development of a professor seems to follow a rather consistent pattern which is tied to advancement through the professorial ranks. . . . Rank is more than an external symbol of the amount of time one has spent in academe; it has sufficient explanatory power to advance it as the key concept in describing and understanding how faculty state their goals, engage in specific work activities, use feedback on their progress, react to the organizational culture, interpret expectations and opportunities, and balance the continual conflict between professional and personal demands. (p. 16)

They also stated that the institution must have a clearly identifiable organizational culture in order for the faculty member's interaction with the institution to be an important factor in defining one's professional life stages.

From these writings, it appears that career development of the individual faculty member is intricately linked with organization, personal, and professional development. In fact, it seems contrary to life experience to separate out any one component.

Integrated Models of Faculty Development

Bergquist and Phillips recorded their ideas about faculty development in a three-volume set, published in 1975, 1977, and 1981 and referred to earlier in this chapter. In their first volume, the authors stated that an effective faculty development program must include three elements: instructional development, organization development, and personal development. In their second volume, they presented three models which integrate concepts of attitude, process, and structure, each of which presents alternate views of the focus, purpose, and activities included in the concept. Faculty development is depicted as an overlapping of four developmental areas: organization, personal,

professional, and community, with instructional development as a subset of professional development. In their third volume, they recognized the interrelatedness of faculty development with both the career development of the individual faculty members and the long-term planning and institutional research efforts of colleges and universities. In sum, they place personal, organization, and career development into an institutional and organizational context and designate these issues as being vitally important for the growth and survival of American higher education.

Gaff (1975) presented a model of faculty renewal, referred to earlier, which included faculty development (including elements of personal development and methodology), instructional development (individual courses and curricular), and organization development (environment).

Stage Development

Attempts have been made in the literature and by some researchers to link professional career stages with adult development stages. Van West (1982) has done a critique of the literature describing such research through the 1970s. She pointed out that a stronger theoretical base is needed for such research if it is to be helpful in the study of faculty members.

Several examples of such research as Van West described are as follows: Baldwin and Blackburn (1981) studied 106 male college professors from 12 liberal arts colleges through personal interview and a questionnaire. Data were gathered on faculty values and goals, professional strengths and weaknesses, critical career events, problem-solving behavior, vocational satisfaction, career reassessment, and change. The object of the study was to draw some conclusions about career development and those factors that remain stable or fluctuate over time. They were able to describe faculty characteristics and experiences at five distinct stages of the academic career. They concluded that both faculty members and institutions need to plan career development strategies. Although their research did not directly test conceptual frameworks regarding adult development as they apply to faculty career stages, it did reveal stable, evolving, and fluctuating faculty characteristics at different career levels, as well as critical events that significantly influenced careers. Unfortunately, their study was confined to an all-male sample.

Ralph (1978), who earlier developed a scheme to classify five stages of faculty development, examined data from interviews with 24 faculty members at a large state university. The interviews were conducted to determine how individual faculty members view knowledge, and, based on the results, to locate individuals along a continuum with five defined stages of thinking and acting. He validated his research methodology by correlating his scheme with the Loevinger Sentence Completion Test. The Pearson product moment correlation equaled 0.49, significant at the 0.01 level. Ralph considered this correlation

significant, since his scheme was not intended to measure the whole of ego development. He interpreted this correlation to mean that how professors view themselves as professors and how they view themselves as persons are highly related.

The results of his study placed faculty on a continuum according to the complexity of the assumptions which gave meaning to their professional lives. Three variables examined were knowledge, professional role, and interpersonal roles. The continuum ranged from seeing knowledge as something the teacher has and the student does not have (therefore, the role of the teacher is to give knowledge to the student), to seeing knowledge as more differentiated, more problematic, even relativistic. Regarding the professional role, the concept ranged from seeing things as right or wrong to a realization of choice involving restrictions, and then to a synthesis within the choice of roles. Regarding interpersonal roles, the progression is from seeing people as good or bad to seeing them from a psychological perspective and finally to having a sense of commitment grounded in tolerance and reciprocity.

Brown and Shukraft (as cited in Freedman et al., 1979) concentrated their efforts on establishing a linkage between academic culture (how faculty members order their professional lives) and adult developmental stages. Van West (1982) has pointed out that these researchers emphasized academic culture while neglecting adult developmental theory.

Weathersby (1981) compared faculty members and administrators with college students, using Loevinger's (Loevinger & Wessler, 1970) description of ego development as measured by a sentence completion test. He found that many faculty and administrators scored slightly higher than traditional-age college students. Faculty and administrators were within the range of the Self-Aware to the Conscientious Stages on Loevinger's scale.

Freedman et al. (1979) found a statistically significant difference between the large urban university and the medium-size state university in the number of faculty at different stages of development. The large urban university had proportionately more faculty members in the higher stages of development, 50%, compared with 21% in the medium-size rural state college. Their interpretation of these findings was that the large urban state university apparently attracts faculty members whose views reflect more complex thinking and also seems to influence some individuals to alter their thinking, moving from stage two to stage three of Ralph's (1979) scheme.

Freedman et al. (1979) concluded that: "Development to high levels of selfhood is an arduous and endless enterprise. . . . Faculty members must consequently resign themselves to--or even welcome--a state of continuous self-study. . . . They must do their best to synthesize complex inner and outer worlds, appreciating all the while that this synthesis must be renewed almost as a continuous process" (pp. 165-166).

Blackburn and Havighurst (1976) studied 74 eminent male social scientists to test adult development theory. They discriminated among four groups on the basis of productivity, using eight categories determined by critical career events and found three results: (a) academics pass through distinct and definable career stages; (b) not all male social scientists pass through all the stages; and (c) the stages are not clearly defined by chronological or career ages. They also found that (a) early career productivity was a predictor of future and total career productivity; (b) stability, challenge, and support in the work environment appear essential; (c) administrative stints disrupt scholarly production to the degree that professors become moderately active to inactive in late career; and (d) exchange theory (having the opportunity to give to others so as to be able to receive) and the importance of early work and social experience merit pursuing.

Braskamp et al. (1982) adapted Levinson's concept of alternating cycles of stability and transition to their scheme of faculty development derived from a study of 48 faculty members referred to earlier. Levinson (1977), using a biographic research approach, studied 40 men from various kinds of occupations from their middle thirties to their middle forties. He found that approximately 80% experienced struggle with themselves and with their environment. During this time, certain aspects of their lives suppressed by family and job commitments re-emerge and require that the individual reappraise his life. The person must relinquish his early "dream" of adulthood, deal with the doubts occurring during transition, and create new structures based on his personal reassessment. Such periods of transition are both links to

the future and breaks with the past.

The study of Braskamp et al. (1982) differs from Levinson's in three ways: (a) the scheme is tied to faculty rank, not age; (b) the transition period is shorter (two years, as opposed to five years for Levinson's concept); and (c) importance is attached to environment in both career expectations by the institution and expectations of professional peers in Braskamp's study. Although there is no evidence to indicate that the authors attempted to correlate adult development theory with their scheme, their results are summarized under headings that relate to issues discussed in adult development theory: goals and aspirations; motivation and achieving styles; sources of professional accomplishment, enjoyment, and pride; satisfactions; and environmental press.

Duncan and McCombs (1982) took a theoretical leap of faith to establish implications for faculty development from existing adult development research and theory. They described the characteristics of five professional stages, aligning them with chronological ages 20s to 45, and suggested the appropriate organizational responses in the way of content, strategies, and incentives, e.g., merit pay system, orientation sessions. Hodgkinson (1974) does much the same thing, using his professional experience as the basis for the implications of adult development for faculty and administrators.

Bergquist and Phillips (1981) related Baldwin's and Blackburn's (1981) faculty stages with Levinson's developmental stages, identifying the characteristic experiences and tasks of each stage (see Table 1).

Table 1 lists five professorial levels, relates them to Levinson's seven adult developmental stages, and then briefly describes the faculty member's professional (and some personal) experiences and tasks associated with each professorial level.

Basing their conclusions on recent theory and research findings and the results of interviews and clinical work with faculty at five points in the life course: age 30 transitional faculty, dual career couple faculty, midlife faculty, late entry faculty, and senior retiring faculty. Cytrynbaum et al. (1982) grounded their conceptualization in a psychological and systems viewpoint. Striving to "integrate research on life-span career development in specific stages" (p. 12), the authors cited the psychological dynamics of each stage and drew the professional and organizational development implications for each stage.

It would seem that serious efforts have been made to relate life course theories with professional career development of faculty, and that some studies have verified the correlation between the two.

Table 1

Baldwin's Faculty Stages as Related to Levinson's Developmental Stages

Baldwin's Faculty Stages	Levinson's Developmental Stages	Characteristic Experiences, Tasks
I. Assistant professor in the first three years of full-time college teaching	Entering the Adult World (20-28)	Effort to establish an occupation compatible with interests, values, self-concept. Envision a life dream (establish goals). Locate a mentor who can help young adult get established and pursue dream.
II. Assistant professor with more than three years of college teaching experience	Age Thirty Transition (28-33)	Reexamine initial commitments (e.g., marriage, occupation); question their value. Make desired changes in goals and life style.
	Settling Down (33-40)	Commitment to family usually deepens; life becomes more stable. Adult is concerned with achieving a position of importance in the work setting.
III. Associate professor	Becoming One's Own Person (Late Settling Down Stage, 36-40)	Strong need to achieve objectives set during early 30s (e.g., securing tenure by 38) as validation of self-worth. Desire affirmation by others of success in chosen roles. Wish to become a "senior" member of one's world, to speak with greater authority, to be a truly independent person.

(table continues)

Baldwin's Faculty Stages	Levinson's Developmental Stages	Characteristic Experiences, Tasks
IV. Full professor more than five years from retirement	Mid-Life Transition (40-45)	Question what one has done with one's life. Must deal with disparity between achievements and goals (dream). Urgency of reassessment intensified by growing sense of aging. May eventually revise goals downward or initiate major changes in life. More stable period where person often establishes more intrinsic goals.
	Entering Middle Adulthood (46-50)	
	Ongoing process of transition and restabilization	Sequence of transitional and stable periods continues in later life. Individual development proceeds.
V. Full professor within five years of retirement	Late Adult Transition (60-65)	Experience of bodily decline. Reduction of middle-adulthood responsibilities. Seek new balance of involvement with society and the self. Acceptance of one's failures and successes. Gain a sense of the overall meaning and value of one's life.

Note: From A Handbook for Faculty Development Vol. 3 (pp. 236-237) by W. H. Bergquist and S. R. Phillips, 1981, Washington, DC: The Council of Independent Colleges. Reprinted by permission.

The Individual in the Organization

Schein (1971) provided a useful conceptualization of how an individual moves through an organization in his/her career, the factors governing that person's impact on the organization, which he called innovation, and the organization's impact on the individual, which he called socialization. In a later work (1978), he stated his belief that organizations must be concerned about human resource development not only for humanistic reasons, but also for organizational survival. Schein (1978) outlined six problem areas to be addressed by organizations: (a) improving human resource planning and development activities; (b) improving individual career planning and helping people to cope with difficult work situations; (c) improving the matching processes of individual and organizational needs in a fluctuating environment so that crises are managed; (d) obsolescence, demotivation, and leveling off in middle and late careers; (e) balancing work and family concerns; and (f) maintaining productivity and motivation of non-ambitious workers.

Riegel (1976) placed the source of development in neither the individual nor the organization, but rather in the dialectical interactions of both. He believes that growth occurs when there is asynchrony between individual-psychological and cultural-sociological progressions. He rejects Piaget's emphasis on the stable over the unstable and sets forth dialectical psychology which understands crises and contradictions arising from such asynchrony in positive terms. He believes that contradictory conditions, giving rise to new questions and

doubts coming from the individual and society, determine developmental progressions. "Nevertheless, synchrony remains the goal. It can only be achieved through continuous human efforts" (p. 697). These efforts exist in the planning and coordination required to rearrange constructively the individual's and the institution's progressions.

In a study of 107 members of 28 groups and the 25 managers responsible for the groups, drawn from two firms, performing tasks ranging from advanced scientific research to routine clerical tasks, Meadows (1980a) found that "organicity" (Burns & Stalker, 1961) was strongly positively correlated with innovativeness. Organicity involves the sharing of tasks, roles, and responsibility among group members, as well as practicing principles of democracy and adaptive approaches to work. In another study of 93 individuals from a large telecommunications corporation and a medium-sized chemicals firm performing tasks ranging from advanced scientific research to routing clerical work, Meadows (1980b) found that organic structure, as opposed to mechanistic structure (Burns & Stalker, 1961) in small work groups, is positively associated with the satisfaction of higher-order needs (Maslow, 1970), while mechanistic structure correlates with their frustration. He also found sufficient evidence of interaction between some strong personality traits (need for dominance, autonomy, and achievement) and the organic structure-satisfaction correlation to suggest that attention be given to organizational structure and process of work groups at all levels in organizations. The implications of these results seem to have obvious application to the professional role of college professors. Professional engagement that involves sharing in

the responsibility and decision-making of the institution is related to innovativeness; that same involvement is related to professional satisfaction.

Bharadwaj and Wilkening (1980), commenting on the contrasting levels of involvement between lower and higher income groups, stated:

> That organizational involvement adds on to the effect of other domain satisfactions for members of the highest income group may be due to the greater freedom of action permitted by their leadership roles and their derived feelings of status and competence from participating in personally meaningful organizational roles and activities. (p. 177)

Although faculty salaries do not place faculty members in the highest income group, the academic structure does allow a great deal of freedom, status, and the potential opportunities to participate in significant roles. It would seem that institutions could capitalize on that reality.

Howard and Downey (1980), in their discussion of "human resource planning," assigned responsibility to address the growth needs of faculty members to both the individual and the institution. They suggested networking, outside enrichment activities, study, job hunting (a project which requires cognitive energy and action), mentoring, and creative coping as a life style, as strategies that individuals can use to avoid feeling and being "stuck." Shertzer and Stone (1968), coming from the perspective of counseling, go so far as to assign the counseling term, "helping relationship" to individual-group interactions: "Some supervisory and administrative relationships are so conducted as to facilitate maximum growth through processes which free individual potentialities" (p. 6).

In 1976, Eble wrote: "What affects teachers most when they start out . . . is the visible and invisible hand of the institution which employs them" (p. 162). There appears to be sufficient evidence to suggest that this same hand continues to affect teachers throughout their careers. Schein's (1978) opening remarks in a recent publication indicate that the influence is interactive: "Organizations are dependent on the performance of their people, and people are dependent on organizations to provide jobs and career opportunities" (p. 1). Certainly, that interdependency is true in institutions of higher education as well as in other organizations.

Riegel's theory, placing development in the dialectical interaction of the individual with the organization, seems to touch on the issue of keeping individuals aware of the potential to develop in the organizational setting. Research done by Meadows (1980a, 1980b) provides evidence that a sense of significant involvement in the organization (institution) is necessary to satisfaction and creative production. Both the theory of dialectical interaction and the research on organicity are process oriented. It would seem that one key to ongoing renewal of middle-aged and old-aged faculty during transition periods is to be found in institutional processes and faculty involvement in those processes.

Summary of Emphases

The different emphases in faculty development probably point to differing perceptions regarding the role of faculty members in the institution. From the literature reviewed, it seems that an integrated approach to faculty development which recognizes the developmental nature of faculty members and the interaction of the faculty member and the institution provides all facets of faculty development: personal, professional, career, organizational, and instructional.

Faculty Development in the Future

Challenges in Faculty Development

In 1979, Carol Shulman described faculty malaise arising not only from current conditions in higher education, but more importantly from the disparity experienced between original expectations in their careers and the actuality. At that time she called for a new model of the academic profession. Writing again in 1983, Shulman examined research on faculty career development based on recent knowledge about adult development. She contrasted emerging knowledge about careers today with the traditional view of faculty careers: before tenure and after tenure. Shulman then made several key points: (a) dissatisfaction is more likely to occur at key faculty career stages which coincide with critical adult transition periods; (b) institutions must acknowledge institutional responsibility for successful resolution of faculty problems; and (c) a different model that provides for variety in faculty careers is needed to encourage faculty development. She had

challenged administrators to look for new ways of coping with faculty dissatisfaction in 1979; the challenge was implicitly repeated in 1983.

Grahn and others (1980) conducted a study of the job satisfaction of 96 teaching, administrative, and student service faculty members. The findings revealed that the subjects experienced highest satisfaction with moral values (being able to do things that do not violate their consciences), social service (the chance to do things for people), and activity (being able to be kept occupied all the time). The lowest job satisfaction job reinforcer was company organizational policies and practices. The implications of these findings seem to indicate the need for faculty development efforts to focus on the individual as a member of the organization. Bergquist and Phillips (1981) made the point that little progress has been made in incorporating personal and organizational dimensions into systematic planning and programming in institutions of higher education. They challenge institutions to give attention and effort to this enterprise in the face of "the most severe test of the century" (p. 166).

Patterson and Schuttenberg (1979) identified the major challenge in higher education through the middle of the 1980s: "to improve the quality of human and material resources rather than to substantially increase their quantity" (p. 14). Wurster and McCartney (1980) stated that "an institution has two basic responsibilities: (1) to help faculty members grow, and (2) to help students learn in the most effective way possible" (p. 15). They believe that these two responsibilities should be integrated and that the ultimate purpose of

faculty development is "to improve the quality of education, to re-emphasize the basic teaching mission of the institution" (p. 15).

Lindquist (1981) discussed six major foci for faculty development in the 1980s: facilitating lifelong learning, facilitating education for human development, facilitating career and life transitions, facilitating acquisition of basic skills, improving conditions for teaching, and managing multiple learning resources. He suggested that the core ingredients of faculty development programs should be study of human development and research; study of alternative curriculum, teaching, and evaluation practices; study of students, mission, and curricular and teaching practices and outcomes in higher education; study of organizational supports; and the study of how the institution could regularly assess and improve educational efforts.

Freedman et al. (1979) listed six critical needs to be addressed in higher education, all of which relate in some manner to faculty development: clarify individual and institutional rights and responsibilities; experiment with new ways to organize knowledge; revise curriculum by integrating student development and academic goals and activities; experiment with assessing departures from traditional instructional methods; relate professional roles of faculty with adult personality development; and develop good teachers through revised graduate education, as well as learn how to identify good teachers to reward them for being good teachers.

The authors recommended that institutions use socialization theory to promote professional development of faculty members. This theory holds that individuals acquire ego structures influenced by the environment. This is a slow process since ego structures are relatively stable entities, as indicated by Loevinger and Wessler (1970). The professional development of faculty is such a structure. Development occurs when individual faculty members face situations for which they cannot account with their established resources. These situations become a challenge which must be appropriate for the individual, "within the limits of the adjustive capacities of the faculty member" (Freedman et al., 1979, p. 107).

According to these authors, the challenges necessary to stimulate development of increasingly complex and sophisticated ways of making choices and of thinking are present in the normal course of events on college campuses. Challenges may also arise from planned actions, e.g., changes in role, a new system of rewards. The function of the faculty development program is to assist faculty members in meeting challenges so that growth does occur. Programs should "help faculty members evolve appropriate responses to the demands made upon them, . . . help them achieve insight into external situations and into themselves and . . . apply this insight in useful and practical action" (Freedman et al., p. 107). The authors outlined a way to join theory and practice in faculty development programs: create the environment to stimulate faculty's thinking about the institutional situation and their own development (e.g., through the use of interviews); have a systematic discussion of interview results with the group interviewed; and from

the results of the interviews and their implications, plan the actions to be taken, assess their effectiveness, and revise them as necessary.

Nelsen and Siegel (1980) conducted a study on 20 campuses, interviewing more than 500 faculty members and administrators and a few students to determine the effectiveness of existing faculty development programs. Besides identifying what was considered effective, the authors drew several conclusions from the perceptions of the interviewers regarding what is needed for the 1980s in faculty development: flexibility to meet a variety of individual needs; broader vision held by faculty regarding their own development and consequent faculty involvement and administrative leadership in designing programs; involvement of key faculty to design teaching improvement programs with a specific focus; combination of corporate and individual opportunities for faculty development to effect faculty learning and bonding; assistance for faculty to understand better their students and the learning process; individual career counseling as opposed to large-scale programs; and mutual understanding of each other's perceptions (faculty and administrators) regarding faculty development.

Mayhew (1977) designated four factors which will influence the future of faculty development: acceptance of the responsibility to train junior faculty by senior faculty; the length of time that student evaluations of teaching can continue before students, faculty members, and administrators tire of them; the economical feasibility of faculty development centers; and the question of the professional role of a

college faculty member.

Simerly (1976) clearly assigned responsibility to the administration of postsecondary institutions to create conditions conducive to the effective use of human resources. While this position sounds pragmatic, Bergquist and Phillips (1981) made a statement regarding institutional responsibility which recognizes the unique contribution that faculty members make to the educational institution:

> The institution can . . . create conditions which will assist the individual faculty member to further the process of restoration once it has started. It can make clear, by its structures and its systems, that it places the highest value on great teaching, that it recognizes that such teaching must proceed from that hard clear light which it can encourage but never create itself. And it can provide the teacher with such support as is possible as he attempts to find a vital and creative means of dealing with that separation from society which can never be eliminated, if the faculty member is to live true to his vocation.
>
> Finally, the college or university can recognize that, if it aspires to greatness itself, its only means to attain it is in a faculty made up of individual teachers, each striving in his teaching . . . to 'fling broad its name.'" (p. 337)

Summary of challenges in faculty development. The recommended direction of faculty development for the 1980s seems to place responsibility for development on both the individual and the institution in improving the quality of education. It also assumes that there be interaction between faculty and administration in designing faculty development within the institution. And, finally, it seems to assert the need to link the importance of who the faculty member is as a human being and what the faculty member does to the whole institution, to establish the connection between the role of the individual faculty member and the mission of the institution.

Personal Growth and Development

The need to integrate the personal growth dimension into faculty development programs was addressed by Bergquist and Phillips (1981), who suggested that institutions provide interpersonal skills training and theory, as well as personal growth laboratories, both handled skillfully according to carefully designed guidelines. Their handbook has exercises to be used in this area. Because institutions "must provide personal assistance to the individual who is struggling with personal issues" (p. 199), the authors recommended provision for "corrective, supportive, or therapeutic services" (p. 199). They also called for preventive measures such as those mentioned above and informal discussions led by trained counselors.

Gross (1977) advised administrators to concentrate their efforts on providing programs to assist professors in staying current in their academic disciplines and in improving the quality of communication with their students. He disdained programs of faculty development intended to effect changes in middle-aged faculty members' personality by such techniques as human potential seminars and encounter groups.

Kersting (1977) developed an heuristic model of personal and professional development and program development, based on his assertive compromise theory. This theory advances the idea that the most effective approach for personal and program development is "through boldly, positively stated, mutually beneficial [for the individual and for the institution] plans of action" (p. 9). His schema focuses on the person and the program, individually and interactively, as they function

(or do not function) in three areas: environmental, sociological, and psychological. Both the person's and the program's development can be observed as to the level of functioning in each area, diagnosed, and remediated where applicable.

Stordahl (1981) cited the repeated references in the literature to the personal development/personal involvement component and the agreement that "the problems faculty members have in their personal lives have a direct bearing on their effectiveness as professors and personal involvement by faculty members provides motivation as well as assurance that individual needs will be met" (p. 1). Other authors who have made specific recommendations regarding the centrality of personal development to faculty development are Stice (1976-1977) who wrote on assertiveness training and anxiety reducers; Freedman (in Freedman & Sanford, 1973), who specified faculty interviews; and Centra (1977), who discussed growth contracts.

Lindquist (1981) recommended these components to be included in faculty development programs addressing the personal dimension: professional development built on expressed needs of faculty; activities to help faculty assess their own concerns (as well as students' concerns); activities to advise faculty and to help them advise students; personal support groups and training to form student support groups; opportunities to seek their own personal and career development; and counseling, workshops, and data feedback to help faculty to wrestle with personal attitudes blocking their development.

It is to be noted that in the study undertaken by Nelsen and Siegel (1980), the researchers found only one institution that was trying to deal with the issue of student advising, one issue which Lindquist (1981) specifically singled out for attention. They also found that very few of the institutions in their study were assessing their faculty evaluation procedures and that not one of them was dealing systematically with faculty evaluation, a requisite implied in several of Lindquist's components of a faculty development program. Although it may seem that student advising and faculty evaluation have more to do with professional and instructional development, they also embody personal development. When dealing with the practical applications of development, it is difficult to separate one aspect from the others; there is not only overlapping, there is also integration. This principle of integration will be explored in Chapter Three on the model.

The whole issue of institutions' providing opportunities for personal development is sensitive. Perhaps it is best resolved by relating it to other issues in faculty development. Lindquist (1981) recommended, for example, that such programs be based on assessment of faculty needs. Stordahl (1981) and Lindquist (1981) both imply that personal development should be addressed insofar as it affects professional behavior. Such linking of personal development with faculty assessment and professional behavior would seem to remove the potential threat that activities aimed at personal development might pose for faculty.

Faculty Participation and Program Effectiveness

In a study of 585 randomly selected faculty members from doctoral, comprehensive, and baccalaureate institutions, Wick (1976) found no significant predictors of faculty members' willingness to participate in faculty development activities. She did, however, draw some tentative conclusions. Faculty members are most willing to participate in activities related first to professional development, second to improvement of teaching. They are least willing to participate in faculty development programs related to "other institutional activities." Faculty members who are involved in their professional organizations, who hold doctoral degrees, who hold degrees in social science or in education, and who spend more time in research and publishing are more willing to participate in professional career faculty development activities than others are.

Some of Wick's (1976) findings were substantiated by those of Nelsen and Siegel (1980), which showed that professional development activities, both traditional and new, e.g., taking a colleague's course, studying outside one's discipline, gaining new research competencies, had the highest success rate over instructional development, curricular change, and organization development activities. Success was measured by the independent judgment of two interviewers who conducted interviews with faculty, administrators, and some students and rated the overall impact of faculty development programs as "Highly successful," "Partly successful," or "Unsuccessful." Activities designed to improve instruction were successful when tied to specific objectives, such as

the use of the computer. As already stated, only one program on organization development in the 20 colleges visited was successful, a finding related to Wick's conclusion that faculty are least willing to participate in those programs related to "other institutional activities."

Centra (1977a, 1978a) surveyed 2600 colleges in the United States in 1975; of the 1,783 respondents, 60% of the institutions claimed to have faculty development programs of some kind. However, the respondents (those in charge of faculty development, usually a director of the program, a dean, an associate dean, or a faculty member serving part-time as coordinator of the program), estimated that the group of faculty least involved were those who most needed to improve, whereas the group most involved were "good teachers who want to get better" (p. 200). It is worth comparing Centra's 1975 findings with a 1970 survey done by the American Association of University Professors in which only 6 out of 150 faculty respondents indicated that their institutions had effective systems of faculty development (Gaff & Wilson, 1971).

Centra's (1977b) analysis of the results of student ratings of teacher effectiveness should be reviewed. Approximately 9,000 teachers from 100 colleges were rated by their students, using the Educational Testing Service Student Instructional report. The results showed that beginning teachers and those with more than 12 years of teaching experience had lower ratings and could probably use faculty development efforts most, for different reasons, according to Centra. Beginning teachers, he explained, have learned virtually nothing formally about

teaching in graduate school and are actually "learning on the job." Teachers in later years "can easily become stale in their methods, preparation, or outlook" (p. 48).

Centra's (1977b, 1978a) survey of those responsible for faculty development programs showed that traditional teaching excellence awards, used widely, were rated not particularly effective in improving instruction. Systematic student evaluations were used widely and were judged to be effective, sometimes very effective. Although not used very much, videotape analysis was rated one of the most effective practices. Workshops dealing with specific techniques or with new knowledge were estimated as being more effective than those aimed at general educational issues. Grants given to develop innovative ideas and new courses were frequent and rated highly effective. Although seldom practiced, growth contracts arranged between the individual faculty member and the administrator were most frequently mentioned as being very important. Faculty advisory committees, present in 61% of respondent institutions, were rated important to maintain faculty involvement in designing programs.

In an evaluation of faculty development programs in 24 institutions, including community colleges, four-year colleges, and universities, Blackburn (1980) reported how faculty rated program effectiveness. The faculty in Blackburn's study based their ratings on self-assessments and students' performance, somewhat on "informed" student opinion, little on colleagues' judgment, and least on administrative feedback. They rated leaves highest and on-campus

workshops lowest. Regarding benefits of programs, they rated "better understanding of students" and "better relationships with students" at or near the bottom; one-half the respondents never mentioned these as benefits. The highest average ranking benefit was "support or confirmation of previous ideas and practices." Furthermore, faculty members felt that while their own teaching was above average, their colleagues' teaching needed improving. However, the number one desire was for improved teaching, although not for specific pedagogical techniques, a finding substantiated by Nelsen and Siegel (1980). Manuscript preparation and publication and improving interpersonal skills received the first and second highest average rankings in professional development needs. Faculty rated consultation with colleagues or experts much higher than presentations on pedagogical techniques.

It is important to note some significant differences in the studies cited. Wick's (1976) study was designed to find significant predictors of faculty members' willingness to participate in faculty development. Centra (1977a, 1977b, 1978a) and Blackburn (1980) studied program effectiveness. Wick and Blackburn used faculty as subjects and asked them to assess program effectiveness. Centra (1978a) surveyed those responsible for faculty development programs, including administrators and faculty members. Centra (1977b) analyzed student evaluation forms to determine program effectiveness. Nelsen and Siegel (1980) were studying the effects of grants issued by the Association of American Colleges on 20 campuses. Their subjects were administrators, faculty members, and some students. Data were compiled from interviews and a

composite report forged to tell what was being done, how successful it was, and what factors made programs successful.

Summary of evaluation studies. Because the studies are different in their choice of subjects, in their methodology, and in their objectives, it is difficult to compare them; however, there is something to be learned from each. Programs aimed at professional development seem to be successful and to attract faculty participation. Those aimed at instructional improvement are successful when linked with specific objectives. Some of the newer programs, e.g., growth contracts, videotape analysis, and grants for innovative projects, are successful, although not widely used. Faculty seem to feel that their colleagues need more improvement in instructional skills and ability than they do; however, faculty rated consultation with colleagues much higher than pedagogical techniques, a finding which implies respect for colleagues as well as disdain for being taught pedagogical techniques. The studies do not provide data regarding career development or personal development. Organization development seems to be almost totally lacking as a means of faculty development.

The study done by Nelsen and Siegel (1980) is probably most valuable in its identification of factors affecting program success. The researchers found seven variables to correlate with overall impact of programs. Planning and preparation explained only 13% of the variance in the overall impact of funded programs, due probably to the greater impact of implementation and follow-up activities. General institutional management and administration, likewise, was not a

significant contributor to program success, probably because it was not specifically found in the faculty development programs. However, grant program management and administration was a significant contributor to overall success. Clarity of purpose had a strong correlation with program success, as did increased spectrum of involvement and on-campus communication. In each case, program success was defined as the answer to the question: "How successful has it [the grant which made various projects possible] been in helping the college to achieve its overall institutional goal?" (p. 140). The response choices ranged from "Very Successful" to "Unsuccessful."

Another reason that the Nelsen and Siegel study is valuable is that the subjects included administrators, faculty members, and students. Rather than isolating one population from another in interpreting their results, they "hammered out" a team report that represented the views of all three populations, separately and combined. The specific identification of factors influencing the effectiveness of programs is especially helpful information for use in designing institutional programs for faculty development. It points toward a possible relationship between faculty willingness to participate in programs and actual program effectiveness. One may postulate that faculty might be more willing to participate in programs rated effective, than in those not perceived as effective.

One last observation regarding faculty members' willingness to participate in faculty development should be made. Nelsen and Siegel (1980) carefully signaled the reluctance of some faculty to respond to faculty development efforts and asserted, "The central challenge to faculty development is to make programs so attractive that even the pessimists and cynics sign up for them" (p. 145). In 1972, Clark Kerr referred to faculty's resistance to change in a postscriptum to The uses of a university: "The university has been shocked by many external and internal crises over the past few years, but it is remarkable how little has changed on so many campuses in those areas that are under faculty control and where the faculty feels strongly about its control" (p. 130). Whether or not Kerr's opinion is widely held, it must be admitted that faculty development efforts are ultimately controlled by faculty's willingness to participate, which participation is associated with willingness to change.

Faculty Development and Change

Included in the institution's efforts to provide such stimulating programs must be the recognition that faculty development is an "attempt at change" (Chait & Gueths, 1981, p. 31). Assuredly, faculty development is one area that is intimately related to faculty control. Cole (1982) particularly affirmed the need for faculty to have a positive attitude toward themselves, toward teaching, toward students, toward the institution, toward their discipline and the academic profession, and toward change, if programs are to succeed.

Eric Hoffer (1952) introduced his book on change by stating that human beings "can never be really prepared for that which is wholly new. We have to adjust ourselves, and every radical adjustment is a crisis in self-esteem" (p. 1). Stice (1976-1977) brought out the point that even when faculty members want to change for the better, they cannot do it alone; they need some sort of center to provide service, encouragement, models, and ideas. For Becker (1968), that center is the institution itself which provides the need for change. He set forth a philosophy and method for achieving personal change:

> A structural explanation of personal change . . . suggests that we need not try to develop deep and lasting interests, be they values or personality traits, in order to produce the behavior we want. It is enough to create situations which will coerce people into behaving as we want them to and then to create the conditions under which other rewards will become linked to continue this behavior. (p. 156)

Whereas Becker's suggestion hints at manipulation of persons by the institution, Chait and Gueths (1981) have defined a model for faculty development using Etzioni's motivational theory, based on the use of power. Etzioni (1961) defined three kinds of power: coercive, remunerative, and normative. Chait and Gueths suggested that using normative power (the distribution of symbolic rewards, such as esteem, prestige, and "positive acceptance," by leaders and peers) can enhance faculty development's image as a "desirable, rather than merely acceptable, activity" (p. 31). The authors admitted that normative power may mean manipulation to influence social norms. They outlined six design criteria for faculty development based on normative power: focus on professional roles and activities; developmental approach and constructive rationale, as opposed to a remedial approach; a program

central to the institution and strongly supported by senior administration; a program faculty-centered, not administratively directed; a campus-wide structured program, as opposed to department-structured; and a reward system for participation that meets individual desires and promotes normative change.

Both Hipps (1982) and Park (Baldwin, 1982) encouraged programs of human resource development based on management by objectives for both faculty and administrators. Park, in an interview conducted by Roger Baldwin, talked about management development as practiced in the Higher Education Management Institute. This process helps people work in teams to face problems in higher education in a rational and human way and identify the link between the individual's goals and the institution's goals. According to Park, this process can be used as a tool for faculty development because "it gives them [the faculty] a structure and skills as a group to work through . . . problems, as well as helping individuals to identify what skills they need to develop" (p. 12).

Hipps (1982) also insisted on the importance of merging individual and institutional concerns arising from needs assessments. He identified five areas of concentration: instructional, curriculum, organizational, personal, and professional, and held that any such plan is meaningless outside the context of institutional development.

Variety in Faculty Development Approaches

Nelsen and Siegel (1979) recommended that a first step in faculty development "is to educate faculty as to the great variety of approaches to assist in their own renewal" (p. 4). Examples of this variety have been given in the programs and directions suggested above. There are several areas that should be emphasized, either because they represent concrete ways to facilitate approaches suggested by theorists or because they enable the kind of faculty involvement which studies have indicated faculty prefer: the use of an internal consultant and other forms of collegiality, the faculty development center, the use of rewards, the effective use of planning processes, Gaff's (1977) paradigm of faculty development, and the use of the organizational setting.

Internal consultant and collegiality. Various names are used to describe the role of an internal consultant in faculty development. Gallesich (1982) defined a consultant as a specialized professional who "assists consultees (agency [college or university] employees who are also professionals) with work-related concerns" (p. 6). An internal consultant is one who is also employed by the institution. Pilon and Bergquist (1979) specified that the consultant in higher education helps the individual or group prepare for some action--he or she does not do the action; the consultant must rely on information, reasoning, and good will, on expert or charismatic power, not on position power; and the consulting relationship is temporary, not ongoing.

Howard (1977) developed a model of the psychoeducator as consultant. The focus is on educational improvement by means of purposeful, indirect intervention aimed at groups and institutions. He suggested these activities to accomplish instructional improvement: teachers helping teachers; a counseling psychologist who enlists the aid of resource people within the institution to meet the varied needs of individuals; resource and technical expertise of materials and consultants from national centers for faculty development; and teaching key faculty members the skills to help them be effective consultants.

Bergquist and Phillips (1981) described a method of instructional consultation which should focus on the teachers' current situation, giving appropriate feedback, and on alternative teaching practices. It should be concerned with the domains of information, values, and ideas. These three areas interact in problem-solving situations in six steps: problem sensing; problem analysis; generating an ideal solution; generating a realistic solution; formative evaluation; and summative evaluation.

Parker and Lawson (1978) designed a project to help faculty adapt their teaching to their students' developmental and learning characteristics through the use of a consultant. Using seminars, the consultant helps teachers become aware of the discrepancies between their espoused theories of teaching/learning and the theories they actually use. Through a process of meeting with teachers to find out what they want to learn, of observing in classrooms, and of feedback in one-on-one situations and in seminars, the consultant helps teachers

identify their theories-in-use. The underlying principle in their use of the consultant is to build an atmosphere of trust through dyadic interactions in the preparation and feedback sessions between the consultant and the faculty members.

Bardon (1982) described a consultant in higher education as one who improves the academic lives of the faculty as individuals and as a corporate body in a developmental manner. He suggested "an educational and systems model that incorporates understanding of human needs and system needs and is based as much on social-psychological principles as on personality dynamics" (p. 179). He established an Office of Educational Development primarily to promote colleagueship and to improve the quality of teaching and scholarship in a particular university setting. Among other things, Bardon established the need for the university to commit ongoing funding for such a venture and for effective communication of the purpose and importance of this type of consultant-collegial approach.

Another collegial approach to faculty development is that of Becker (1981) who recommended the consultant as colleague and mutual helper. Becker called for the faculty to choose an effective teacher who would serve as the consultant on teaching for a term. He developed an elaborate system that includes the use of mentors, videotaping and follow-up, classroom visitation by invitation, course auditing, colleague groups who work together on activities and discuss educational issues, self-evaluation shared confidentially, the use of trained student observers who give feedback to teachers, systematic student

evaluation for normative and formative purposes, and participation by students, faculty, and administration in evaluating the evaluation process. Becker emphasized the necessity of strong administrative support for the approaches listed above, as well as for the principles contained in them.

Cooper (1982) described the Collaborative Analysis and Action Planning Process, a diagnostic process which allows consultants, teachers, and their students to gain insights into how an instructional system is structured and how it functions. It is collaborative (the consultant, the teachers, and the teacher's students work together), systematic, and multimethod.

Stice (1976-1977) reported that the consulting service in use at the University of Texas at Austin has moved more toward the area of personal counseling. Faculty members were using it because their personal problems were affecting their teaching, sometimes directly.

The uses of consultants reflected in the citations above point to the centrality of the collegial approach, a spirit of mutual involvement in a common task. Primarily an influence process, it relies on professionals who are experts in one area to share that expertise with their colleagues. Its aim is to help other professionals clarify professionally related behavior, attitudes, and feelings. The accompanying activities related to the consultation process represent a wide variety, respect the desires of faculty to be involved in their own development, rate high among effective faculty development programs, and satisfy the recommendations made by theorists regarding the future of

faculty development.

The faculty development center. The faculty development center, already mentioned (Stice, 1976-1977), ties together all efforts offered by the institution toward faculty development. The Center at the University of Texas at Austin is the result of faculty interest rather than administrative effort and recognizes that education is both an individual and an institutional responsibility. The Center encourages sharing departmental resources and tries to create a sense of community with the following goals:

> 1) develop a course in college teaching for faculty members
> 2) provide a consulting service for faculty members and graduate TAs [teaching assistants]
> 3) develop a course in college teaching for graduate TAs
> 4) institute a series of workshops on teaching topics for faculty members and graduate TAs
> 5) make a survey of the general purpose classrooms on the campus to assess the existing situation, and draw up a set of recommendations for renovation of old classrooms and construction of new facilities
> 6) serve as an information center to provide answers about educational matters. (p. 81)

Stice raised two questions regarding the future of the Center at Austin: (a) Will the institution budget the funds necessary to have a viable program? and (b) Will the institution support the Center by rewarding efforts toward good teaching, i.e., by considering certifiable good teaching in awarding promotions and raises? Those two questions, while certainly applicable to an ambitious program such as an established center for faculty development, are also vital questions regarding the future of faculty development in any institution, regardless of form. Although the center as described by Stice would be a big undertaking for a small institution, the concept has merit and embodies the opportunities for and desirable characteristics of faculty development

as outlined by authors cited earlier.

Use of rewards. The importance of linking rewards with professional behavior is stressed by several authors (Becker, 1968; Bergquist & Phillips; Centra, 1977; Chait & Gueths, 1981; Eble, 1976; Freedman et al., 1979; Gaff & Wilson, 1971; Nelsen & Siegel, 1980; Sheffield, 1974a, 1974b, 1974c; Stice, 1976-1977). Some refer specifically to linking rewards to participation in faculty development efforts; others to linking rewards to good teaching; and still others reflect on the need to make a definite connection between rewards and performance in order to assure the continuance of the desired behavior in a social setting, i.e., the institution.

Eble (1976), while calling for an improved reward system for teaching in higher education, maintained that "a better reward system rests upon a responsible and enlightened faculty" (p. 165). Chait & Gueths (1981), using Etzioni's normative power concept, listed three essential steps in linking rewards to the behavior of participation in faculty development programs. They are: to find out what individual faculty members want and value; to make sure that the rewarded faculty performance reinforces the institution's goals; and to assure that rewards from the institution reinforce individual desires. Such rewards should be a blend of extrinsic and intrinsic, economic and non-economic.

One word of caution came from Maher (1982) when he raised the question regarding how much recognition is good for the individual: "It would seem possible that too much recognition could begin to debase its own value" (p. 9). The conclusion seems to be that rewards should be appropriate to the behavior, a judgment requiring wisdom and experience.

Other proposed models. In addition to models already referred to in other sections of this paper, there are several which merit attention.

Ciampa (1980) outlined a planning process for instituting a faculty development program. He offered suggestions for various possible programs, each depending on the specific amount of money available. He felt that success depends on a faculty development coordinator's ability to orchestrate the developmental activities ranging from released time and consultant service to in-house workshops and faculty activity bulletin boards. Two requirements to make the program work are faculty acceptance of the coordinator and voluntary participation.

Smith and Ovard (1979) recommended a planned program which would fight against faculty obsolescence. Under their plan, faculty would propose their own programs in writing to the academic officer who either modifies or approves these plans. What they described is a growth contract. Suggested activities include compensated or noncompensated leaves of absence, theoretical or applied research (done singly or in collaboration), research reports and syllabi, unpublished papers and speeches, professional consulting, professional service, curriculum planning and revision, professional workshops attended or conducted,

activities which would effect a major change in the department, school, or university.

Gaff (1977) presented some general thoughts that could well form a paradigm for faculty development and which include elements which flow from his belief that faculty need more than knowledge in their professional role. According to Gaff, colleges and universities should institutionalize their present efforts by demonstrating their commitment to faculty development through such things as providing staff support and a budget. New services should be offered to help faculty in order to improve the quality of academic life on campus. The institution should evaluate the program and its activities. Administrators need to have sensitivity and skills in developing their faculty. Gaff recommended that programs designed to serve individual needs should also emphasize institutional goals. Sometimes the institution has to go a different way from the way that faculty would choose. The program and its activities should provide new challenges and outlets for creativity while addressing the personal dimension. Students should be brought into the process; students have valuable input regarding what they perceive as being professional and instructional needs of faculty.

Wurster and McCartney (1980) presented general ideas about using faculty development as a planning strategy that emphasizes the human dimension. Collecting data about societal changes that affect higher education and communicating this information to the faculty is a first step, to be followed by formally recognizing the socialization processes of faculty: how they are accepted into the social fabric of academia;

how they relate to one another, to their disciplines, and to the institution. Then the social networks can be used to make change work. Paramount in importance is merging individual goals with institutional purposes, primarily done by recognizing talents, skills, and interests and putting them to work. A vital component is recognizing "the political forces and vested interests which influence campus programs and organizations" (p. 20). Above all considerations is the need to insure the quality of education. The authors recommended using faculty development as the means of revitalizing the institution. "Faculty development provides the intellectual and value framework for that renewal--identifying and refining purposes, values and goals; planning provides the resources and organizational structure that facilitate the institutionalization of those purposes, values and goals" (p. 20).

Writing in a similar vein about faculty development seen in the perspective of the organizational setting, Watson and Nelson (1982) described a strategy precisely to promote organizational well-being. They recommended the following parts of such a strategy: (a) an accurate data base on the human needs within the institution and resources to meet them; (b) a system that demonstrates the administration's concern for faculty and staff through structural change and programs; (c) the use of resources to provide ongoing mental and physical health services to its personnel; and (d) taking specific steps to restructure opportunities for personal and professional growth. On this last point, the authors stated that "every effort should be made to assist faculty to develop professionally, even when there is no obvious or direct benefit to the university itself" (p. 418).

What seems central to the proposed models of Ciampa (1980), Smith and Ovard (1979), and Wurstner and McCartney (1980) is the planning process. Gaff's paradigm seems to involve every aspect of the institution and flows from his belief that a new understanding of faculty development is needed, one that recognizes that faculty members are primarily human beings. Watson and Nelson (1982) concentrate on the individual within the organization and propose strategies that recognize the need for institutional commitment to change and to the well-being and effective functioning of the people within the institution.

Summary of Future Directions in Faculty Development

The literature is replete with ideas about future directions for faculty development. Key concepts addressed are the need for planning; the need for a systems perspective, based on the belief that what happens to one part of the institution affects every other part; the importance of administrative support and leadership; a variety of approaches in programs available; coordination of efforts through some centralized effort and office (or person); integration of efforts into a holistic approach; and the acknowledgment that faculty development is the responsibility of both the individual and the institution.

Central to the success of all the above principles of strategy is the recognition by both administrators and faculty that human beings are more than functionaries. They are not only agents, functioning within and for the organization, they are also subjects, acting and being acted upon. As pointed out repeatedly in the cited references, faculty members need to see the link between themselves and the institution.

They need to know the answer to the questions: "Do I make a difference around here? If so, what is the difference? And how do I make it? Does anybody care whether I make a difference?" It seems that accepted authorities are saying that the future direction of faculty development is concerned with the opportunities to pursue these questions in order to accomplish institutional goals. People accomplish goals, not institutions.

Summary of Faculty Development

The history of faculty development demonstrates an evolution of the concept from concern for keeping faculty current in their respective disciplines, to improving teaching, to various emphases on personal, professional, organizational, and career development, as well as models to integrate these approaches. There seems to be a shift in the future directions proposed by certain authorities from efforts which focus on improving faculty performance to efforts which examine the interaction of the faculty member with the institution. Authorities who offer ways to examine and capitalize on this interaction ground their ideas in behavioral science theories.

This shift suggests a responsibility shared by the individual faculty member and the institution for faculty development. Shared responsibility could result in increased awareness of faculty members' potential and actual contributions to the institution's goals and of the opportunities that institutions can offer for its members' development.

Adult Development

Several authors have cited the need for institutions to be aware of the developmental nature of adults in its policies and practices. This section will highlight some of the major contributors to adult development theory and research, especially as they apply to midlife and old-age transition periods.

Limitations

Bernice Neugarten (1968a) wrote about the need for a psychology of adulthood "in which investigators are concerned with the orderly and sequential changes that occur with the passage of time as individuals move from adolescence through adulthood and old age, with issues of consistency and change in personality over relatively long intervals of time, and with issues of antecedent-consequent relationships" (p. 137). Eleven years later, she published an extensive, critical review of the literature on personality and aging in which she pointed out methodological flaws and conceptual impoverishment, suggesting further research steps to be taken and recognizing that research to date has been culture-bound and history-bound. She specifically called for combining "the insights and the methods of the conventional personality theorists, the developmentalists, and the clinicians[,] . . . keeping in mind that the scientific approach is only one among many approaches to the study of personality" (Neugarten, 1977, p. 644).

Stevenson (1977), in an interpretative summary of the literature on middle age, bemoans the limited research on persons 50 to 70 years old. A further limitation of knowledge about adults results from the fact that most of the research done has been confined to all-male samples; there is a need for an adequate theory of adult development for women (Barnett, Baruch, Dibner, Parlee, & Bailyn, 1976; Gilligan, 1977, 1979). Barnett et al., for example, pointed out that Erikson's theory regarding identity resolution, deals with women by suggesting that the issue is dealt with after the choice of a mate. The result is often, then, that the woman's identity is intricately bound with being a wife. These authors also indicated that Levinson's theory of what happens to a person in the 20s, 30s, and 40s does not take into consideration the situation of women who may not enter the work world until their late 30s.

In the absence of an integrated socio-psychological theory of aging (Lowenthal, 1977), an attempt will be made to cite those models and theories which have been offered about adult development, specifically as they apply to the transition periods of middle age and old age.

Life-span Development Theories

Havighurst (1973) outlined some of the major contributions to theories of adult development which have come from life-span views of personality development researched between 1920 and 1970. The life-span view proponents see "the personality as a pattern of behavior that emerged from the interaction of a biological organism with a social environment, in which the organism possessed an active force that made

demands upon the social environment and was to some extent shaped by the environment" (p. 7).

Charlotte Buhler (as cited in Havighurst, 1973) identified five age periods and two sets of life events that varied over those periods: the biological and the biographical. She found that both the biological and the biographical rose steadily through the first two life periods, then differentiated, with the biological beginning a steady decline and the biographical remaining stable at a high level until age 55-65, at which time it also declined. She later added another dimension of basic life-tendencies: need satisfaction, adaptive self-limitation (adjustment), creative expansion, establishment of inner order, and self-fulfillment. Each of these is active throughout life but each has a dominant period. She also expanded the age periods into ten. Her research, done in the early years of the twentieth century, used life histories from elderly people.

Else-Frenkel Brunswik (as cited in Havighurst, 1973), a contemporary of Buhler, studied the social adjustment of men who were 60 years of age and older. Hers was the first systematic study of personality of men at retirement age.

Erik Erikson (1963, 1980, 1982) developed a theory of personality development (ego epigenesis) which identified eight psychosocial tasks to be accomplished at specific age periods. If these are not accomplished, their opposites are developed: basic trust vs. mistrust; autonomy vs. shame, doubt; initiative vs. guilt; industry vs. inferiority; identity vs. identity diffusion; intimacy vs.

isolation; generativity vs. self-absorption; and integrity vs. despair. Erikson's belief was that if any of these is not accomplished at its designated age period, it will rise to ascendancy in later life.

Between 1935 and 1950, a group of people in New York and later in Chicago, working under the sponsorship of the Progressive Education Association and then of the Child Study Program of the American Council on Education, developed an organismic theory of personality (Havighurst, 1973). They discussed a series of life-adjustment tasks to be accomplished by growing persons in relation to their environment. From their work, the concept of "developmental task" came about. Havighurst's theory, based on Erikson's psychosocial tasks, grew out of these discussions. It is one "primarily based on biological development and social expectations which change through the life span and give direction, force, and substance to the development of personality" (p. 11).

Bernice Neugarten (as cited in Havighurst, 1973), interested in adult development, demonstrated an intrapsychic development of men and women in middle and old age from outward-directed attitudes regarding life toward interiority, a more passive, introverted attitude. Her conclusion was to attribute some personality changes in adults to developmental, others to environmental effects. Neugarten (1977) went on to develop her theory regarding the transition from middle to old age: it is the unexpected timing of events that causes trauma; normal, expected events do not constitute crises. This theory is explored later in this paper.

These early theorists paved the way for further research in adult development; they made the breakthrough by demonstrating how growth continues in adulthood, the factors that affect development, and the characteristics of developmental stages or periods.

Crisis vs. Transition

Birren and Renner (1977) defined aging as "the regular changes that occur in mature genetically representative organisms living under representative environmental conditions as they advance in chronological age" (p. 4). They identified four kinds of aging: biological--"an estimate of the individual's present position with respect to his potential life span" (p.4); psychological--"the adaptive capacities of individuals, that is, how well they can adapt to changing environmental demands in comparison with the average" (p. 5); functional--"an individual's level of capacities relative to others of his age for functioning in a given human society" (p. 5); and social--"the roles and social habits of an individual with respect to other members of a society" (p. 5). The last three seem particularly useful in discussing the issue of adult transitions and/or crises.

Freedman et al. (1979) summarized developmental theory found in Loevinger and Wessler (1970) and Perry (1970) and pointed out that these theorists' unique contribution to findings on human development is the examination of assumptions that individuals make about social reality and how these assumptions change over time. As indicated, Freedman et al. defined development as "dealing with experience in increasingly sophisticated and complex ways and being able to integrate this

complexity into stable structures" (p. 96).

In this development, there appear to be cycles of life with stable periods preceded and followed by transition periods during which individuals move from one relatively stable period to the next (Atchley, 1975; Cytrynbaum et al., 1982; Stevenson, 1977). There are different theories regarding this movement from one period to the next that are related to such terms as "crisis," "transition," and "turning point." For the purposes of this paper, the discussion will proceed from a general treatment of these terms to the particular application.

Crisis

Perun and Bielby (1979) distinguished between two views of crisis: crisis as a developmental imperative, and crisis as a result of asynchrony. Proponents of crisis as the developmental imperative believe that crisis is needed and sufficient to cause individuals to change; proponents are Erikson (1963, 1980, 1982), Gould (1978), Levinson (1978), and Vaillant (1977). Those who see crisis as the result of asynchrony are Neugarten (1968a, 1968b, 1970, 1976, 1977) and Riegel (1975, 1976).

Lieberman (1975) defined crises as "highly demanding situations in which the individual must adjust his behavior to a new set of circumstances" (p. 139). Caplan (1964) defined crisis as a period of disequilibrium in which there is an "imbalance between the difficulty and importance of the problem and the resources immediately available to deal with it" (p. 39). Morley's (as cited in Pruett, 1980) definition

of crisis is: "a term reserved for the acute and often prolonged disturbance that may occur to an individual . . . as the result of an emotional hazard" (p. 54). Stevenson (1977) differentiated between maturational stresses, which repeat themselves every seven to ten years in adults, and situational crises, which are extraordinary stresses that happen only in some persons, not in a particular age group. Lieberman's definition seems to fit the "developmental imperative" model, whereas Caplan's definition might fit both models, although it appears more related to the asynchrony model, as does Morley's definition. Stevenson's distinction between maturational and situational crises apparently allows for both models.

Transitions

Spierer (1977) summarized the main themes of an interdisciplinary conference on the major transitions in the human life cycle held at the Given Institute of Pathobiology at the University of Colorado Medical Center in 1976. Fifteen authorities from the fields of education, sociology, psychology, biology, anthropology, psychiatry, and medicine conferred in order to understand better the concept of aging as life-span development. Their definition of transitions was: "Changes that have important consequences for human behavior . . . [that] may be due to biological, sociological, environmental, historical, or other phenomena" (Spierer, 1977, p. 6). These changes may be sudden or cumulative, evident at the moment or later, obvious to friends and society or unnoticed.

Cytrynbaum et al. (1982) defined transition as implying "a process of change moving an individual from one relatively stable stage or period of personality development to another" (p. 11). Levinson et al. (1978) described transition periods as times in which to question and reassess existing structures, search out new possibilities, and form new structures, times characterized by instability. Fried (1967) stated that the function of the transitional period is "to stimulate and confirm the development of whatever skills or characteristics are needed to deal adequately with the social and psychological demands of the next stage of life" (p. 55).

Spierer (1977) identified three ways that transitions may be defined: by time periods in the life span, by role, and by events. Cytrynbaum et al. (1982), Fried (1967), Gould (1978), Levinson et al. (1978), and Sheehy (1974) treat the concept of transition as time periods.

Gould (1980) referred to life stages through which people progress by self-transformation, which is accomplished as individuals, aware of their own mortality, no longer can experience the "illusion of safety" created by doing what parents and significant others have directed. "It is a transformation of self in which we enlarge the license to be, only after going through mythical dangers in order to arrive at a new secure place that in turn will be left when the feelings of stagnation and claustrophobia initiate another cycle. . . . When we grow, we correct a belief that has restricted and restrained us unnecessarily" (p. 58). For Gould, a changing sense of time is the building block of

development.

Gerstein and Papen-Daniel (1981) described the importance of social roles in adult development: "It is the roles that we maintain over several stages that give our lives a sense of continuity, stability, and order. However, the anticipation of changing roles often triggers transitional periods that are not completed until a new alignment of roles is in place" (p. 21). They believe that the anticipation of many role shifts or the knowledge that expected role shifts will not occur, precipitate feelings of disruption and turmoil. Such feelings mark the beginning of transition periods which end only when the person has settled into the new role.

Spierer (1977) credits James E. Birren with the concept of functional age, which concentrates on the physical, emotional, and intellectual requirements of the person responding to the tasks demanded by society. An individual's ability to perform functions changes as aging occurs. Depending on the nature of the task, improvements or declines in performance occur.

Albrecht and Gift (1975) defined adult socialization as "the processes through which an adult learns to perform the roles and behaviors he expects of himself and others expect of him" (pp. 237-238). This adult socialization in turn helps people to cope with crises as they readjust.

Peck (1968) suggested using certain events, rather than specific ages, like "middle age" or "old age", as the demarcation points of transition, e.g., retirement, time of the climacteric. The patterns for developmental tasks associated with these events vary with adults, from person to person. Gerstein and Papen-Daniel (1981) have suggested that it is not the events themselves, but their significance to the individual that make them meaningful. It is the individual's decision regarding the event that determines whether it is a dead-end event or an opportunity for growth and development. Barnett et al. (1976) called for studies to "identify the particular combinations of life styles, social role expectations, and individual circumstances that transform certain happenings into marker events in people's development" (p. 31).

Related to the concept of "marker events" is Atchley's (1975) use of the term, "turning point", that is "a change in situation that alters the individual's usual strategy for coping with day-to-day life. . . . The disintegration and subsequent reintegration associated with turning points can occur as a result of a long process of erosion or as a sudden shift" (p. 275).

The pertinent question for this paper is whether people go through crises or transitions at middle age and old age. Neugarten (1970) maintained that the timing of an event determines whether or not it generates a crisis reaction. Those events which are unanticipated are traumatic, e.g., the death of a child. Neugarten argued that such events as retirement need not be considered crises, but rather normal phenomena. Neugarten based her conclusion that a psychology of the life

cycle is a psychology of timing rather than one of crisis behavior on research done at the University of Chicago in the 1960s, using more than 2,000 subjects.

Pruett (1980) indicated that events are infrequently hazards which in turn cause crises. It is the individual's interpretation of and reaction to them that constitute stress. He believes that midlife can be a period of growth when individuals develop coping strategies or a period of despair when they fail to do so. Gerstein and Papen-Daniel (1981) used the terms "midlife crisis" and "midlife transition" synonymously and placed the causes of midlife crisis in the interaction of daily human events and society.

Midlife

There seems to be general agreement among many authors regarding a feeling of general malaise and dissatisfaction associated with either midlife crisis or transition (Albrecht & Gift, 1975; Fried, 1967; Gerstein & Papen-Daniel, 1981; Howard & Downey, 1980; Pruett, 1980; Riley & Waring, 1976; Seligman, 1975; Stevenson, 1977). Gerstein and Papen-Daniel (1981) have categorized the symptoms of midlife crisis as follows: unhappiness, insecurity, depression, indecision, fear and anxiety, conflict, restlessness, trappedness, irrational job changes, reduction in productivity, resentment, retreat from responsibility, alcoholism, infidelity, and inconsistency. They listed the causes as being physical and environmental (job pressure, societal change, expectations of others) and emotional (redundancy, lack of a meaningful personal philosophy, options, frustration, grouping, depth of personal

relationships, and fears).

Sheehy (1974) characterized the midlife transition period as "Catch 40"; these midlifers feel the time squeeze and have a high career ascendancy. Both Sheehy (1974) and Gould (1978) attributed acute discomfort with "I'm growing old" and recognition of gaps between one's dream and one's life reality to middle-aged persons. Spierer (1977) described depression, anxiety, and tension resulting from stress due to fluctuating hormone levels. Fried (1967) cited the following characteristics for persons in their 40s: resurge of oedipal conflicts, fear of aging and death, conflicts about power, difficulties with maintaining intimate relationships, responsibility for parents and children, period of reassessment and dealing again with earlier life crises, inquest rather than quest, uncertainty, loss of control over what is happening, resistance to change, and personal evidences of aging.

Seligman (1975) set forth the principle of "learned helplessness," in which people have a sense of losing control of their lives. Stevenson (1977) believes that people, aware that they must die and that they are losing control over their own lives, experience despair which is the basis of middle-aged turbulence. Gould (1980) believed that between their mid-30s and mid-40s people have an emotional awareness of their own mortality. From then on, the thought of death in the future is always near, and the way time is spent becomes very important.

Howard and Downey (1980) synthesized the descriptions of "job burnout" as those feelings of "frustration, bitterness, depression, alienation, and even withdrawal [which flow from the feeling of] stuckness, [that condition of lacking the] opportunity for personal and professional growth and visibility" (pp. 140-141).

Fried (1967) differentiated between boredom and boredom experienced during crisis. Fried referred to the latter condition by its Latin name of acedia. Crisis boredom lasts longer and is a "paralyzing mixture of despair and apathy in whose presence the future disappears" (Fried, 1967, p. 95).

Changing role expectations can become a stressor (Albrecht & Gift, 1975; Pruett, 1980). Taking on new or unanticipated roles requires a person to resolve ambiguous role expectations with respect to performance, skill acquisition, competence, and stress reduction (Albrecht & Gift). Middle-aged persons who have reached the top experience the feeling of having nowhere else to go, particularly those who had believed that a promotion would mean new opportunities, only to find that it is not true (Pruett, 1980). Those who are promoted to new challenges, for which they feel inadequate or unprepared, experience stress; likewise, those who fail to be promoted question their self-worth and identity (Pruett, 1980). Losing a job at middle age is particularly stressful because the person realizes that options are limited, given advancing age and the preference of employers for younger people (Pruett, 1980).

Pruett (1980) listed the following events as potential hazards in midlife: the departure of the last child, the climacteric, career and work changes, death of a parent, physical aging, and changes in marital status.

Opportunities for Growth

There is strong conviction, however, that stressors, crises, and turning points can be growth producers for middle-aged adults who are aware of midlife stressors and understand their unique meaning (Albrecht & Gift, 1975; Barnett et al. 1976; Caplan, 1964; Cytrynbaum et al. 1982; Fried, 1967; Lieberman, 1975; Pruett, 1980; Selye, 1973; Stevenson, 1977).

Pruett (1980) suggested using a three-step intervention strategy for identifying the stressor and determining how hazardous it is: facilitating one's intellectual and affective grasp as well as expression of the hazard; determining why former coping strategies are inadequate and exploring new coping devices; and then developing a plan.

Other theorists recommended a support system (Albrecht & Gift, 1975; Barnett et al., 1976) to help individuals turn stress situations into opportunities. Such systems would provide individuals with feedback, emotional guidance and support, and the opportunity to develop expertise through combining of resources and mutual help. They would supplement individual intrapsychic adjustment to the environment with social supports.

In 1960, Simmons wrote: "Perhaps the most important lesson that can come to us out of the earlier cultures is that successful aging rests upon the capacity and opportunity for individuals to fit into the social framework of their own societies in a way that will insure security and influence" (p. 74). "Anticipatory socialization" (Albrecht & Gift, 1975) seems to provide a viable framework within which to enable such a social fit. The authors have presented a concept which stresses the need for an attitude of ongoing socialization in adulthood, such that individuals learn what is expected in specific roles, not only from their past experiences of rewarded performance, personal resources, hopes, and skills, but also "through preparatory education, planning, observation, and attempting" (p. 240) some new role requirements and learning to use failure experiences rather than fear failure. The future orientation called for by anticipatory socialization is obscured by the lack of preparation for a life of continual change on the part of institutions and formal education and by the implication that learning stops at graduation from formal schooling (Albrecht & Gift, 1975).

This latter obstacle could be countered by attention to McClusky's (1970) theory of adult potential which states that an adult's sense of discovery can be cultivated, restored, and increased when the adult makes such an attitude of continuing to discover a part of self-expectation as a learner with "unrealized potential" rather than "de facto limitation." McClusky (1970) suggested that:

> resistance to learning may not necessarily reflect a reluctance on the part of the adult to learn but simply his unwillingness to dislocate some of the basic commitments around which much of his life is organized. Such an adult would be much more likely to learn if his basic commitments could be eased (e.g., via leaves of

> absence with pay and allowance for family expenses) so he could be more free to learn. (p. 155)

Fried maintained that although such change can dispel some of the boredom associated with being 40, it is no panacea. The author implied that in order to handle this crisis, midlifers must establish belief in the future through finding out again who they are.

Atchley (1975) believed that turning points, properly prepared for through "anticipatory socialization" (Albrecht's and Gift's term), need not be crises. He suggested that clear-cut cultural definitions for future positions, accompanied by the individual's use of imagination to phantasize the future, the use of passage rituals, contact with role models, individual initiative, the person's response to new opportunities as relief from boredom, and experienced skill at coping with turning points can all promote an attitude of anticipatory socialization for crisis preventions.

Somewhat related to Albrecht and Gift's idea of "anticipatory socialization" is Stevenson's (1977) idea of "pre-transition sensitization" to help individuals ease the ambiguity if not the stress of such developmental periods. Entine (1976) spoke of the midlife crisis as the last possible time for a career change. He proposed mid-career counseling to include both career and personal counseling, the emphasis to be determined by the nature of the event. Using Neugarten's (1968a) distinction between anticipated and unanticipated events, he suggested that unanticipated internal events, e.g., divorce, and anticipated external events, e.g., retirement, require more personal

counseling. Anticipated internal events (empty nest) and unanticipated external events (job obsolescence) would require more career counseling.

As pointed out by Hodgkinson (1981), the Chinese character for the word "crisis" has two parts, one meaning "danger", the other, "opportunity." Barnett et al. (1976) defined coping as the "intra-psychic adjustment which leads to a more harmonious fit between individuals and the environmental pressures upon them. The emphasis is not upon changing the environment to fit the individual, but upon the individual changing to fit the environment" (pp. 20-21). Hodgkinson goes on to say, however, that social supports are needed as our society becomes more complex. On that same issue, Mechanic (as cited in Barnett et al., 1976) stated: "Increasingly, it is clear that major stresses on modern men and women are not amenable to individual solutions but depend on highly organizated cooperative efforts" (p. 21). Research cited earlier, e.g., Bharadwaj and Wilkening (1980), Meadows (1980a, 1980b), and Schein (1978), on the individual in the organization has indicated the role and responsibility of the institution to control and develop the environment in a way that encourages the development of individuals.

Work

The importance of work in people's lives has been alluded to in the references cited regarding socialization fit, role transitions, and career and work changes, i.e., promotion, failure to be promoted, job loss, etc. Chown (1977) reviewed multiple research studies showing that work is a central part of people's lives in time and in importance; one study indicated that work takes up a more significant part of the lives

of those over 45, and several indicated that those men nearing retirement may attach more importance to their jobs than younger men do. Stevenson (1977) had this to say about the positive effect of work on the development of persons:

> The people who avoid stagnation and senility in late adulthood are those who remain open to innovation and change in all spheres of life including the work sphere. In terms of post hoc data on the mentally incompetent elderly it seems desirable for persons in the new middle years (30-50 years) to continue to learn, to be open to new ideas, and to keep current on matters that are relevant to their work. It is particularly important that they continue to expand their knowledge base during these years rather than operate with knowledge and attitudes gained in their own youth. (p. 67)

Neff (1968) stated that "work is an instrumental activity carried out by human beings, the object of which is to preserve and maintain life, which is directed at a planful alteration of certain features of man's environment" (p. 78). Stevenson (1977) attributed the following meanings (in addition to its providing economic security) to work: (a) it gives structure and social continuity to life; (b) it provides a connection between individuals and families and the society in which they live; (c) it serves as a source of self-expression; and (d) it can provide feelings of self-esteem. Stevenson (1977) also brought out the point that highly educated persons have greater expectations of the work situation, i.e., opportunity for self-expression, for developing various skills and interests, for meeting like-minded persons, and for forming friendships:

> With a higher occupational status, the individual tends to incorporate his occupation into his self-concept. The job has more psychologic significance for him, and with personal involvement the individual experiences more ego satisfaction. However, there may be greater dissatisfactions as well; these may be considered intrinsic factors with regard to the meaning of work. (p. 161).

In a study of 678 white males between 21 and 55 years old, Wilensky (1968) found that persons with strong links to work and other larger social systems had jobs which provided a work pattern in which jobs progressed steadily according to an orderly design until the top level was reached. People with jobs giving little freedom to employees, low status, low pay, and little or no interpersonal contacts had much lower personal commitment to the job and integration.

Becker (1968), in a discussion of the complementary relationship between situational adjustment and commitment, defined commitment as "the process of . . . linking . . . previously extraneous and irrelevant lines of action and sets of rewards to a particular line of action under study" (p. 155). He stated that persons who see a current situation as likely to continue for a long time may react against what they perceive as temporary situational changes. They react this way because they see these changes as interfering with a deep commitment developed from a strongly experienced adjustment related to future anticipated developments. However, the same persons may adjust quickly to a situational change when they perceive that the present situation is temporary and that later situations will make different demands. Becker used the research example of medical students whose behavior toward patients showed lack of interest because they were not allowed to make medical decisions, take medical responsibility, or implement important procedures, to describe the condition of persons unable to make commitments. He indicated that this condition may be more widespread than is believed. As demonstrated, commitment can be both a barrier to development when change is seen as a threat to one's commitment and a

promoter to development when persons are allowed to participate in decisions that have value for them.

In a study of 1,485 households (response rate of 40%), Bharadwaj and Wilkening (1980) found that in the middle-aged group, work, followed by leisure time activities, was the best predictor of satisfaction with personal efficacy. In late adulthood, spare time activities, followed by work, was the best predictor. The authors interpreted their collective findings to mean that satisfaction with personal efficacy comes most from life domains which are (a) central to the person, (b) under some control of the individual, (c) self-serving rather than for the common interest (i.e., not for the organization), (d) sources of intrinsic rewards (feelings of competence), rather than of extrinsic rewards, (e) resources enabling personal efficacy, and (f) prominent as a function of differences, i.e., in sex roles, in age, in income (e.g., satisfaction with organization involvement for the highest income group).

The centrality of work to the existence of human beings, it appears, can be used as a factor in addressing the potential ennui of middle-aged persons. Some of the variables affecting people's attitudes toward their job can be externally controlled, for example, through institutional policies and practices toward rewarding behavior, while others can be intrapsychically controlled, for example, through making decisions about such options as staying current in one's field.

Old Age

"What we are up against is a social conspiracy to make youth last a lifetime" (Fried, 1967, p. 77). The results of that conspiracy combine with physiological and intrasychic realities to compound the reality of aging. Fried outlined the following signs of aging: mood swings from physiological changes, psychological conflicts, and social pressures; awareness of a loss of youth and power; awareness of death to the point of worry; loss of career opportunities; awareness of physical loss (strength, looks, sexual capacity--men); loss of feeling alluring (women). Katchadourian (1976) described the movement toward rigidity and intolerance that accompanies aging:

> Between the ages of 35 and 40, personality changes slowly begin to occur: some childhood traits may reemerge, and a reshuffling of motivations and interests takes place. These changes gradually become stabilized, and attitudes and convictions begin to harden, so that by age 50 a tendency toward rigidity and intolerance is established. (p. 45)

On the other hand, Schaie and Strother (1968) found that levels of functioning due to intellectual abilities, response tendencies, and attitudes "attained at maturity may be retained until late in life except where decrement in response strength and latency interferes" (p. 679).

Cytrynbaum et al. (1982) described older adults who have dealt successfully with transition periods and can anticipate an active and productive old age. They have also described those adults who did not deal well with midlife transition and for whom "the transition to older adulthood may be laden with debilitating anxiety and an increased sense of vulnerability that may ultimately set the stage of later low level or

acute psychological and emotional distress. . . . Other midlife or old adults may encounter a resurgence of previous disturbances or the exacerbation of latent conflicts which remain unsolved" (p. 20).

Lieberman (1975), in empirical research on predictors of successful adaptation in late life, drew several important conclusions from four studies. The degree of environmental change was the determining factor in deciding whether or not an event was a stressor for the individual. Those whose adaptive patterns fit the new environment experienced less stress, while those whose adaptive patterns did not match the new environment had high stress and frequent failures in adapting to the new environment. His findings also indicated that cognitive and physical resources influence adaptation. For those whose resources were adequate, predictions of successful adaptation depended on current functioning, specific personality characteristics, and the processes they used for threat appraisal. The only measure of current functioning was a "consistent and coherent self-image" (p. 156). Those elderly persons who were not able to sustain their self-image in the face of drastic change demonstrated deteriorative decline. Interestingly, being aggressive, irritating, narcissistic, and demanding were predictive behaviors for successful adaptation to crisis. The implication seems to be that such persons retained the locus of control for their lives through such behavior.

Lieberman found two additional personality processes to be predictive of adaptation: the elderly person's level of hope and the ability to introspect. He defined hope in this context as "fundamentally an index of the ability of the person to bind time and to extend his sense of time into the future as well as into the past" (p. 156). A particularly significant interpretation of his research is that such findings are contrary to former results:

> That such person characteristics as ego strength and impulse control proved not to be predictive, and in fact in one of our studies showed a small negative association with positive adaptation, should alert us to the need for a reexamination of our theories about old people. It appears that the processes for adequate coping with crises, crises that we believe can be defined as having essentially the same demand properties across the life span, may be life-stage specific. The replication of this finding in several of our studies of the elderly in which the intensity of crisis and the characteristics of the population differed distinctively adds weight to this consideration. (p. 155)

Spreitzer and Snyder (1974) replicated earlier studies and found that perceived health and financial adequacy (self-reported, as opposed to the socioeconomic measure) were predictors of life satisfaction, especially for those over age 65. They further found that women reported higher degrees of life satisfaction up to age 65 and men reported higher degrees after 65. Since their study had no measures of socialization, the researchers were unable to relate their findings to disengagement or activity theories.

Chown (1977), reviewing the research on disengagement theory, cited strong evidence that "voluntary disengagement is not harmful to morale, but that forced disengagement whether due to poor health, disability, widowhood, retirement, or low income, does affect not only social action

but also morale" (p. 679). Riley and Waring (1976) compared disengagement as found in two events associated with aging: widowhood and retirement. Widowhood causes two losses: that of relationship (close, personal) and that of a socially admired, self-defining role. Retirement involves the loss of a valued role.

Retirement, that period of life in which individuals "draw back" from socially structured work, can be stressful for those who have not prepared themselves for it and for whom their career is the "most significant portion of life" (Pruett, 1980, p. 57). The more committed the person is and the more the person's self-identity is related to his or her work, the more significant retirement is for the individual; however, significance varies among individuals (Stevenson, 1977). Stevenson pointed out that the so-called stable period of the years between 62 and 69 may not be stable for many. Changes experienced during this time, as well as their consequences (reality of retirement, reduction in income, change in residence, age isolation, chronic and acute health problems, loss of status-position) all add to the coping requirements of people. Those who develop work-role substitutes and have good internal coping mechanisms can enjoy this period. Stevenson (1977) also reported that individuals who were more deeply committed to their work have more changing to do (than those with less or no commitment) during retirement. Stevenson stressed the importance of emotional preparation for retirement which includes acceptance of one's life up to that point in time. She also indicated the value of work for persons in the post-retirement years, pointing out that most of the work such persons do is "people-oriented."

Chown (1977) listed five factors which influence the effects of retirement on the individual: (a) type of job--highly committed persons work as long as possible; (b) health--poor health is the chief cause of early, voluntary retirement and correlates with low satisfaction; (c) income--reduced income resulting from retirement is related to low morale; (d) family--emotional support and acceptance of one's retirement by one's family is important to adjustment for the retiree; and (e) purpose in life--feeling useful and involved helps the individual adjust to retirement; feeling useless produces low morale; looking forward to retirement is related to adjustment only when the individual has planned realistically and put the plans into action.

Riley and Waring (1976) have posed a dual challenge for sociologists: "To explore how and to what degree social factors are responsible for personal troubles and social problems related to age; and to find social means for ameliorating or correcting these problems" (p. 357). Related to this challenge is the position taken by Lozier (1975) and Carruth (1975) that society has a responsibility to accommodate older people. "Solutions to problems of neglect [of the elderly] cannot be found by changing old people, but require changes in society" (Lozier, 1975, p. 296). Chown (1977) concluded her review of research on the links among morale, careers, and personal potentials in the aged with these observations. Friedsam's (1961) hypothesis of "replaceability" might be useful: "If a relationship, activity, or object can be replaced, then the impact of the loss is likely to be less" (Chown, 1977, p. 684). Reducing the number of constraints on the aged person's freedom of choice would most likely help preserve that

person's morale.

Effect of Age on Academics

There is a limited body of literature on the effects of aging on academics. A great deal of it has concentrated on the institutional effects and what institutions should do to offset any negative effect on the achievement of institutional goals and objectives. What follows is a brief review of literature which describes the effects of aging on faculty and administrators and makes some proposals regarding organizational approaches which might capitalize on the strengths and address the weaknesses of aging academics.

Gross (1977) extrapolated the condition of a "professoriate slowly flagging in research productivity and becoming increasingly inflexible in the face of changing pedagogical needs" (p. 752).

Baldwin (1979) described associate professors who are middle-aged: "Occasionally they are nagged by the fear that they have reached a dead end, that their career has plateaued and that they have nowhere to go professionally" (p. 19). About full professors (middle-aged): "Advanced faculty members who fail to 'branch out' can fall victim to career inertia. Limited opportunities for professional growth may lead to disillusionment or depression, which can very likely affect the performance of these professors" (p. 19). And about full professors near retirement (old age): They have "decreased enthusiasm for teaching but are particularly comfortable with service to their department or college . . . may fear that their knowledge is out of date . . . their

comfort with research may have diminished significantly. Yet at a time when efforts to enhance their skills might be beneficial, retiring professors seem isolated" (p. 19).

Cytrynbaum et al. (1982) have described midlife faculty members as those who

> may demonstrate an 'intellectually fallow' period or even professional or personal withdrawal. Their writing and research may stop, their teaching may be characterized by a lack of enthusiasm or infusion of new ideas, their administrative, counseling, and mentoring functions may be left incomplete or inadequately done. All in all, this can be an extremely stressful period in their lives, in which energy is low and used almost exclusively for defensive, ego review, or introspective work. They may manifest little excitement for the quality academic scholarly work of past periods of their lives. (p. 16)

Such characteristics describe a developmental crisis: "a perceived state of physical and psychological distress caused when internal resources and external social support systems are overwhelmed by the demands of developmental tasks" (p. 12).

Freedman et al. (1979) and Cytrynbaum et al. (1982) acknowledge the need for institutional efforts along with the individual's efforts to provide those mechanisms which can bring about the needed change. Cytrynbaum et al. suggested specific assistance that institutions can provide to assist midlife faculty members in addressing their particular challenges: (a) the institutional community be aware of the normalcy of midlife struggles and costs; (b) the institution give support and encouragement both covertly and overtly for the faculty to seek professional counseling; (c) the institution make flexible sabbatical leaves available; and (d) the institution give leaves or reduced

responsibility to faculty members who are exploring career shifts or redirection of talents. These same authors also suggested organizational implications for development of older faculty members so that the psychologically "younger" faculty of retirement age receive support to continue their scholarly, mentoring, and administrative work in a way that is meaningful. They recommended full-time teaching, policy and advisors board membership, consulting and mentoring responsibility to less senior faculty, serving as leaders and chairpersons for ad hoc committees and specific projects that address politically sensitive issues.

Although it is not strictly within the purview of this paper, it is worth mentioning that Hodgkinson (1981) and Heffernan (1979) have addressed the same issues as they relate to aging administrators and made some valuable contributions and recommendations, not unlike those mentioned above. For example, Heffernan pointed out that the "organization which attempts to override the mid-life and mid-career self-analysis of its members is only postponing the inevitable, and is perhaps exacerbating its severity" (p. 134). The implication is that the organization can and should do something to address the issue of midlife transitions experienced by its members. He made a similar point regarding administrators in pre-retirement stage, saying that aging need not adversely affect the operations of organizations: "Pre-judgments and bias about age-related characteristics probably have greater dysfunctional impacts than do the actual age effects themselves" (p. 138). Heffernan also suggested that it is the responsibility of the organization to develop meaningful work for those about to retire, work

which is appropriate to their ability, perhaps special assignments, such as acting as consultant. The idea is to let them know that their expertise is valued by the organization. He noted the importance of preretirees' knowing what they will face before they have to face it, of friendship supports, of contacts with persons who have recently retired, and of having some involvement in the organization.

Writing in a similar fashion, Hodgkinson (1981) made specific reference to the belief that presidents of higher education institutions often hold regarding administrators: ignore them until something goes wrong. He described the condition of administrators who, as they become better administrators, are regarded by their faculty colleagues as being less scholarly. This condition amplifies the already existing difficulty of dealing with the "downward revision of the dream" (p. 725) created during their 20s. Hodgkinson recommended specific goal-setting accompanied by clear evaluative measures as the way to help administrators through this period. Regarding old age, Hodgkinson described the condition of "hanging on" and suggested that strategies to deal with this phenomenon be tailored to meet individual needs.

Bess (1975) presented a plan for revitalizing faculty members especially those at middle age through institutionalizing the public service mission of higher education. Such a plan would enable disenchanted faculty to explore new career options from the security of academia in separate, funded public service areas. Bess stated that "we should look at them [middle-aged faculty] as deserving renewed opportunities to rejuvenate themselves, to become more effective in

their own terms, and to make greater contributions to their institutions and society" (p. 323).

Summary

Certainly, all middle-aged faculty members do not experience an intellectual or professional "fallow" period. But it needs also to be admitted that some do have this experience. The important point is that the institution needs to recognize that its personnel do pass through normal transition periods, which, for some, become crisis points. At these points, the institution through its policies and practices needs to take steps to address crises in an organized, systematic, yet human way. Both theorists and researchers have provided ample direction to enable institutions to establish creative programs of faculty development that would keep faculty renewed. What is needed is recognition of the issue and commitment by the institutions to address the issue.

CHAPTER III

THE PROPOSED MODEL

Purpose and Organization

Given the current state of the art and the future proposed directions in faculty development, what can institutions of higher education do to help middle-aged and older faculty members remain renewed and productive during transition periods? Should they do anything? If so, should it be anything different from that which is done for all other faculty members?

The position of this writer is that something can and should be done, and it should specifically be aimed at addressing the needs of persons during times of transition, even if not of crisis. It may or may not be something different from that done for other faculty members; the difference might lie only in the statement of purpose and direction of faculty development programs.

The characteristics of middle-age and old-age transition periods described in the review of literature suggest the existence of behaviors and attitudes that militate against personal, professional, and career development, as well as institutional growth and development. What can the institution do to help persons change those behaviors and the attitudes that underlie them? Whatever is done should be based on assumptions agreed upon by the academic community as being valid in that particular institution. The model for addressing specific needs of

middle age and old age should not be an appendage to an already existing institutional program, e.g., a workshop on adult human development or a lecture on pre-retirement planning, but rather an integral part of a program that is grounded in theory applied to a particular situation. In order for that to happen, institutions would need to examine any existing program (or parts of a program) to determine its current meaning for faculty development, and then go from there to decide what can be done in that particular college to promote effective faculty development as defined earlier in this paper.

What follows is a model of faculty development that includes ways to address the specific needs of faculty members during the transition times of middle age and old age. It is to be noted that addressing this specific issue is not something "added on," but is a distinctly identifiable part of the whole system of faculty development that attempts to integrate the development of the individual into the development of the institution. Therefore, what is presented includes a theoretical basis for faculty development that addresses this issue of helping faculty through transition periods of middle age and old age as part of the total faculty development program.

The ideas for the model emerge from an extensive review of the literature as reported in Chapter II. Underlying the construction of the model are certain basic assumptions and characteristics that must be true with regard to the faculty development program, to the institution of higher education, to the leadership, and to the faculty in order for the model to work.

The assumptions are ordered according to the following plan: those concerning faculty members, those concerning the institution, and those concerning the interaction of the faculty member with the institution. The discussion on characteristics of the model begins with those which describe the nature of faculty development as it relates to the person, then proceeds to those that describe administrative and institutional qualities supportive of faculty development. It is followed by categories of activities and approaches in faculty development, and ends with suggested theoretical considerations. Flowing from these assumptions and characteristics are the elements of the model.

The model, then, is composed of three parts: basic assumptions, characteristics, and elements. It is intended to be implemented in a four-year college that grants baccalaureate degrees, at which there are no graduate programs leading to an advanced degree. The general principles underlying the model, however, should be applicable on any higher education campus.

Basic Assumptions

Faculty Members as Persons

Faculty development has to do with persons. As Gaff (1977) pointed out: "The assumption that faculty are little more than minds and need only accurate and up-to-date knowledge of their specializations to be satisfied has been shattered. A broader view has emerged in which faculty are seen primarily as human beings who spend the bulk of their time and energy teaching, and a host of new services has been devised to nurture various aspects of their working lives" (p. 518). However, an

even broader view is needed that encompasses such words as "dignity, courage, character, joy, delight, pride, and meaning" (p. 519). Gaff indicated that perhaps we need to look beyond education and the social sciences to more humanistic fields like "religion, philosophy, literature, and art" (p. 519) for a more profound view of human beings.

Regardless of where one looks for principles and guidelines to help probe the mysteries, complexities, and problems related to persons working in the academic environment, it must be admitted that the development of faculty is the development of persons, not of functionaries. Those responsible for the institution must keep in mind that the faculty member who is not functioning "up to par" is a person, for whom functioning in a particular manner is not a value at that moment, or perhaps a person who cannot function even if it is valued. To seek the reason for the person's not functioning without considering the person involved is to treat the symptoms while avoiding an essential part of the cause.

As indicated by Lindquist (1981), Hipps (1982), Ralph (1973, 1978), and Preus and Williams (1979), addressing the personal dimension in faculty development means acknowledging the developmental nature of adults and taking that into account in designing programs. Implied in that statement is the idea that faculty members have different needs at different stages of their academic lives (Baldwin & Blackburn, 1981; Cytrynbaum et al., 1982). Institutions, aware of this, should address this fact in their programming efforts, e.g., by providing a variety of activities, by addressing age-appropriate behaviors and expectations in

their activities, and by not expecting older faculty members to respond positively to the same kinds of activities as younger faculty members do.

Transition Periods as Normal

Flowing from the first assumption that faculty development is concerned with persons and that persons go through developmental stages is the assumption that transition periods are a normal part of human development (Cytrynbaum et al., 1982). Stevenson (1977) pointed out the cyclical pattern of adult development in which one experiences relatively stable periods, followed by transition periods during which existing life structures are breaking up and new ones forming, leading to another relatively stable period, and so on. The transition periods of middle age and old age may or may not be periods of crisis, depending on many factors. In addition to acknowledging the normalcy of transition periods, the institution needs to recognize that it has control over social, cultural, and historical factors that influence whether transitions become crises.

If it is true that during periods of transition adults develop the skills or qualities necessary to deal with the social and psychological demands of the next stage of life (Fried, 1967), then it would seem that the institution, as part of recognizing the normalcy of transition, could assist its members in developing these needed skills and qualities. Furthermore, if growth involves letting go of long-held "illusions of safety," those beliefs that have "restricted and restrained us" (Gould, 1980, p. 58), then it would seem incumbent upon

institutions to assist those individuals through affirming growth by policies, processes, and procedures that facilitate change while supporting those persons undergoing change processes, e.g., through providing an internal consultant and/or personal counseling. Again, if it is true that a change in roles can both precipitate a transition and result from a transition (Gerstein & Papen-Daniel, 1981), then it would appear that the institution could help individuals prepare for and plan changes in roles and thereby help them to make the necessary psychological adjustments necessitated by such role change.

Desire to Improve

Faculty members want to improve; they want to grow personally and professionally. The opposite view, which is totally indefensible, is that faculty members do not want to improve; they do not want to grow personally and professionally. The research studies of Braskamp et al. (1982) and Baldwin and Blackburn (1981), for example, give evidence that the desire to improve exists in some measure throughout the career, although the sources of motivation and the areas of development, as designated by goals and objectives at different career stages, change over time. Braskamp et al. (1982) demonstrated that the goal of beginning teachers was to "become" a great teacher, researcher, an expert, etc. The goal of associate professors was generally "to stay on top." Twelve out of 15 had a "sense of mission"; some wanted "to make a difference in people's lives." Full professors toward the end of their careers expressed goals somewhat similar to beginning goals: to continue what they are doing to make a significant contribution to their

discipline and to find new avenues to success. Implicit in each of these goals is the need and the expectation to grow and develop.

To assume that faculty members do not want to grow is tantamount to admitting defeat before beginning or continuing any institutional efforts at faculty development. The assumption that professional people want to continue their development determines a definite direction for faculty development and reflects a positive institutional philosophy regarding the projected effectiveness of any such efforts.

Effect of Personal Life on Professional Performance

What happens to the person affects professional performance (Becker, 1981; Bess, 1975; Braskamp et al., 1982; Cytrynbaum et al., 1982; Freedman et al., 1979). Applied to persons at midlife, this means that the reassessment process and the change of time-perspective from looking at past accomplishments to wondering how much time is left before death have consequences for individuals that influence the way they teach, interact with others on the job, perform professional tasks, do research and community service. Besides these attitudinal changes, the midlifer has to face events that become potential hazards: the departure of the last child; the climacteric; career and work changes, e.g., job promotion or failure to be promoted, possibility of job loss; death of a parent; physical aging; and possible changes in marital status (Pruett, 1980).

Besides the physiological changes which become pronounced in middle to old age, there are personality changes that result in rigidity and intolerance (Katchadourian, 1976). Impending retirement, not to mention closeness to death, becomes a source of stress for many. The knowledge that performance is not what it used to be, that students are not signing up for their courses with the result that classes cannot be justified, that students have changed and they do not know how to respond to those students and make classes interesting for them, and that competitive grants go to younger faculty members more readily than to older ones affects the self-image and the performance of older professors.

Going to work at the college does not remove the events or the attitudes. In some cases, going to work exacerbates the conditions. The physiological, psychological, social, and cultural realities go with the person and affect performance.

Individual Responsibility

The primary responsibility for the person's development rests with the individual (Brown & Hanger, 1975). No one can grow for another person, and no one can "grow" another person. Although factors outside the person influence the kind, the rate, the extent, and the direction of growth, no external factor does the growing.

Research has shown that, despite the presence of faculty development activities on campus, faculty participation is lacking (Centra, 1977). It has also been demonstrated that, according to the perception of those responsible for faculty development, the faculty members who participate most often in programs are those who are already good teachers and want to improve (Centra, 1977). On the other hand, those who need it the most participate the least. Although there may be other factors involved that affect the degree of faculty participation, it is nonetheless true that it is the decision of the faculty member to take advantage of a program that might promote professional and/or personal growth. It is also true that participation alone does not necessarily cause growth; individuals have to follow through with applying principles gained from participation in faculty development programs to their teaching, research, or service. Even allowing that such application can occur only when the institution provides the opportunities, it is still true that the individual makes the decision, carries it out, and grows from the experience.

Institutional Responsibility

The institution has responsibility to help the person grow (Cytrynbaum et al., 1982; Freedman et al., 1979; Howard & Downey, 1980; Patterson & Schuttenberg, 1979; Shulman, 1983; Wurster & McCartney, 1980). This is accomplished by creating and maintaining an environment in which growth can occur, in which professional, instructional, and research effectiveness can be maximized. Such responsibility is carried out through institutional policies and

procedures, through leadership, through administration, and through collegial challenge and support. Policies and procedures should spell out the institution's responsibility for providing opportunities for optimal growth of its members. Procedures should reflect the institution's commitment to those policies which support faculty development. Effective leadership implies a proactive stance with respect to faculty development, actualized by administrative decisions which uphold the principles of faculty development. The combined forces of policies, procedures, leadership, and administration should encourage operational colleagueship, a spirit of collegiality leading to the establishment of a community of scholars.

If it is true that development occurs in the interaction of individuals with the institutions of which they are a part (Riegel, 1975, 1976) and that some of those interactions are indeed crises, then it follows that both the individual and the institution must face the crises. According to Barnett et al. (1976), the coping mechanisms of individuals alone are no longer sufficient to handle crises; they need to be supplemented by institutional support. In order for growth to occur in such situations, institutions need to provide support mechanisms that assist persons through critical situations and through normal life and career transitions.

It is, therefore, assumed that the institution has a responsibility to help its members grow; it accomplishes this goal through its policies, procedures, leadership, administration, and collegiality. The responsibility extends not only to the ordinary, day-to-day operation of

the institution, but also, and perhaps more importantly, to times of personal transition so that individuals experiencing crises during transition will have support in searching out solutions when they have none existing in their current repertoire. The point is that individuals cannot do it alone.

Interaction of the Individual and the Institution

The individual lives and works in the institution. The institution is composed of the persons who live and work in it. There is interaction between the two. As indicated by Schein (1978), there is actually a three-way interaction: person, family, and work. He conceived the career development perspective to link the interaction of the three aspects and defined it as "the interaction of the individual and the organization over time" (p. 2). An important part of this interaction is the development of a "career anchor," the concept of one's "working" self that organizes and constrains decisions about one's career. Even as the socialization process of the individual into the organization (institution) is taking place, so are the individuals bringing their own effect to bear upon the organization, a process Schein called innovation.

Central to both socialization and innovation, as they are affected by the matching processes of the individual and the organization, are the ability and the skills of individuals to establish meaningful relationships with other persons. It is becoming more evident in organizations today that a critical factor in promotion decisions is the ability and skills of individuals in their interpersonal relationships

(Schein, 1978).

Riegel's (1975, 1976) theory of dialectical interactions states that development originates neither in the individual nor in the organization (institution), but rather in the interaction between them. When there is asynchrony between the individual's psychological progress and the organization's socio-cultural progress, crises develop, and persons attempt to resolve them. It is in the process of achieving synchrony again (i.e., of resolving the crises) that development occurs. However, such crises may be intensified when individuals are inadequately prepared to handle them or are insufficiently supported by the institutions which should be supporting them (Carruth, 1975). The implication is that institutions (for example, colleges) play a key role in determining a person's development in the interaction processes that occur within the institution.

It is assumed that the institution through its socialization processes provides the support and challenge needed by individuals to achieve synchrony again. The challenge is the incentive to grow, to change, to develop; the support is the institutional reinforcement which enables response to the challenge.

The Institution as a System

What affects one part of the organization affects every other part (Cytrynbaum et al., 1982; Katz & Kahn, 1978). Since the institution of higher education is an organization, that statement applies to the college setting. The implication for faculty development is that the

development or lack of development of one individual affects the development of other individuals, of the whole faculty, of the administration, of the students, indeed of every aspect of the institution.

The ramifications are significant for the institution. There is the potential disruption of the institution's educational processes when one or more faculty members are experiencing transitional crises, whether predictable or unanticipated (Cytrynbaum et al., 1982). Likewise, there is the potential growth opportunity in the same transitional crises, when the institution recognizes it as such and makes those interventions necessary to support individuals during crises. There are other characteristics of open systems as described by Katz and Kahn (1978) that relate to faculty development. Basically, their model describes the flow of energy into, through, and out of the organization, back into the surrounding environment, such that the flow is an exchange of energy with the environment. The open system is not self-sufficient. It relies on taking some form of energy from the environment in order to transform it. It also depends on the environment to receive the transformed energy in the form of some product or service. Applied to a college, this means that the institution takes money, materials, persons from the external environment, works with them to produce a service, for which it depends on the external environment as a market for that service, education.

In order to preserve the character of the system (college) against any internal or external threats, forces within the system will counter any disruption until the system is restored to steady state. Furthermore, the system practices "preventive medicine" to anticipate disturbances. Such actions do not return the institution to its original state, but rather result in growth and development which produce new base lines around which ensuing movements fluctuate.

It would seem that faculty development would be one kind of "preventive medicine," or, better, institutional "psychological fitness" that would result in growth and development.

Characteristics of Faculty Development

Individualized Program

Faculty development programs should be designed so that they meet the needs of individuals (Baldwin & Blackburn, 1981; Nelsen & Siegel, 1980). Since human beings are unique, they have individual needs. Recognizing this in principle can be translated into acknowledgement by such actions as asking faculty members on a systematic basis what their needs are, providing a variety of programs to help address those needs, having different expectations for different individuals, identifying the unique talents of individuals, capitalizing on those talents, and having a reward system that recognizes uniqueness.

Voluntary Participation

Participation in faculty development programs should be voluntary, not only because required participation violates individual rights but because it would be counter-productive to require participation (Becker, 1981). The most effective programs, whether in faculty development or student development, are those that move the person toward internal motivation. This does not mean that the institution cannot or should not offer strong incentives toward participation. On the contrary, the institution should encourage everything that promotes effective teaching and learning. However, the faculty members must be left free to say no.

What, then, about the faculty member who chooses not to participate but most needs to improve? It is the challenge of those directly responsible for faculty development within the institution to encourage directly and support those persons to participate. Depending on the institution, its size, scope, mission, etc., there should be significant attention paid to involving those most in need of professional development. Bergquist and Phillips (1981) and Hipps (1982) have suggested the use of interviews as one way to approach faculty members who are reluctant to participate in their own improvement. Still another intervention strategy is the use of collegial support groups (Becker, 1981). Whatever the means, the approach is the same, i.e., to seek to move faculty members toward internal motivation.

Faculty Involvement

The faculty should be involved in planning their own faculty development program (Chait & Gueths, 1981; Hipps, 1982; Nelsen & Siegel, 1980). Such involvement leads to faculty ownership of any such program. This does not preclude administrative initiation by such actions as hiring someone to direct a program, nor does it prevent administrative collaboration. It requires administrative support. It does mean, however, that the actual program is carried out and administered by the faculty, the group whose needs it is planned to serve. Any structures established to enhance faculty development should preserve it as the business of the faculty. For example, faculty development committees should be composed of faculty members, not of administrators.

Uniqueness

Faculty development programs should be designed to meet the unique needs of particular institutions and emerge from the special needs and potential of the local situation (Nelsen & Siegel, 1980). It is a serious mistake to attempt to introduce a program from another institution as being the one to meet the needs of any other institution (Hipps, 1982). Not only are individuals unique; institutions are unique also. To transport a program from one institution to another and expect it to work is to assume that there is a single program tailored to meet the needs of every situation. It would likely alienate faculty members who believe that they can design a program as well as others can and eliminate the planning process important to the entire program

(Hipps, 1982). Such importation disallows faculty involvement in their own development, augments the fear of administrative manipulation, ignores the unique needs and growth possible in the institution, and predisposes participants to a passive role.

On the other hand, devising a plan unique to an institution capitalizes on the institution's situation and on its members' strengths, while it simultaneously addresses needs peculiar to that situation.

Constructive Rationale

All faculty development efforts should have a constructive rationale, as opposed to a remedial rationale (Chait & Gueths, 1981; Howard, 1977). Nelsen (1979) indicated that many programs of faculty development that concentrated on the improvement of teaching floundered because they were too clinical in essence. Faculty members seemed to resent the connotations of remediation. One way to avoid that stigma appears to be to have faculty themselves offer programs in which they can learn together by sharing ideas and skills.

Formative and Normative Efforts

A clear distinction should be drawn between what is normative (used for promotion decisions, salary increases, tenure decision) and what is formative or developmental (Becker, 1981). This distinction is important because sometimes development is confused with evaluation procedures upon which decisions regarding promotion are based. Such a situation can be threatening, especially to weaker teachers who need

more encouragement rather than threats.

Gaff (1975) stressed the need to distinguish between student evaluations given to faculty members in order to provide them with useful information for self-improvement and student evaluations given to administrators to provide them with information to make promotion decisions.

Another reason for making the distinction clear is to allay faculty distrust of administrators. Faculty fear anything that is perceived as manipulative. Should faculty development activities offered by the institution imply administrative efforts to manipulate faculty members in any way, they would lose their value as potential helps to development (Nelsen & Siegel, 1980).

Administrative Support

Faculty development requires the support of the administration, both attitudinal and financial, as reflected in policies and procedures (Gaff, 1977). While what is written is not sufficient to produce an effective faculty development program (Gaff & Wilson, 1971), it makes explicit the commitment of the institution toward the development of its members. The evidence resides in specific policies and practices.

One of the most powerful policies that is reflected visibly in practice is the reward structure. Regardless of the institution's statements about making teaching a priority, if this is not evident in the way that salary is determined, whether in negotiation or by pay schedule, if good teaching and efforts toward improvement are not

rewarded, then faculty members will question that priority and respond accordingly. "If the institution does not care, why should we?" becomes the attitude manifested. If professional development is expected of its members, but the institution does not budget funds for attendance at conferences, then that expectation is called into question.

Although financial support for faculty development is essential to its implementation, attitudinal support must also be there. When the institution claims to encourage innovative ideas from its members and then puts barriers in the way of their implementation, e.g., proposals repeatedly sitting idle on an administrator's desk until the deadline has passed, then there is no real commitment to innovation. When there is no one official or committee assigned responsibility for faculty development, or when that responsibility is relegated to an already overburdened official's tasks, then the structures of the institution do not give credence to any stated importance of faculty development. The commitment of the institution to faculty development is observable in its daily practices and lived policies. Commitment is evident by such practices as having a full-time or part-time officer charged with responsibility for faculty development, linking the reward system with participation in faculty development, recognizing innovative efforts of faculty members, providing the budget necessary for professional development, having flexible leaves to allow for developmental issues arising in individuals' lives, considering all those activities related to teaching when assigning workloads, etc. Administrators consistently need to ask themselves what values they are inadvertently attributing to faculty development through administrative policies and decisions.

During the course of that ongoing examination, efforts should be made to make faculty development central in its importance to higher education in that institution.

Leadership

Faculty development programs require strong, sensitive leadership (Nelsen, 1979). Nelsen and Siegel (1980) found a significant, positive correlation between the variable of program management and administration and the overall success measures of the grants in faculty development they were evaluating. In addition, this same variable accounted for 56.9% of the variance in the overall success scores. Expecting this result, they concluded: "In order for a faculty development program to succeed, its administration must be flexible, sensitive, meet legitimate needs among faculty, be strongly supportive and clearly structured" (p. 138).

There are many practical aspects of this kind of leadership, including such details as how allocation of money is to be decided, who decides it, how faculty and administrators are involved, how trust levels among faculty and between faculty and administrators are created and maintained, and how to encourage participation in faculty development efforts.

Communication

Effective communication regarding what the faculty development program is, what approaches are possible, and what activities are available is important to the success of faculty development efforts. Nelsen (1979) reported that the lack of good communication had a negative impact on a program. He spoke for educating faculty to the various approaches that would affect their renewal. Such identification would assist them in determining their needs and expanding their vision.

Nelsen (1979) also indicated that where communication of available opportunities and feedback on results were frequent, faculty were motivated to examine their own needs. This kind of communication demands someone to take responsibility for seeing that information-giving and feedback occur in a systematic fashion.

Faculty Development Institutionalized and Centralized

Faculty development efforts should be institutionalized (Gaff, 1977). They should become a part of the fabric of the institution through written policies and procedures that link all such efforts with the purposes of faculty development understood in the context of the individual institution and its members. Such a formal recognition by the institution establishes faculty development as an expectation that individual faculty members have of the institution and that the institution has of its faculty members. Faculty development is accepted as a priority in the life of the institution and its members.

In order to institutionalize faculty development efforts, it is important to centralize them (Centra, 1978b). This implies having some office, person, group, or system that plans, organizes, and coordinates activities. Taken together with the principle of institutionalizing faculty development, centralization would also seem to require that the person or group responsible would have a sense of why faculty development is important to the individuals and to the institution.

Due recognition should be given to informal efforts that would be destroyed by institutionalizing and centralizing them, e.g., informal sharing sessions. There are some activities that just happen, for which it would be impossible to plan, that are valuable vehicles for growth and development. One might question, however, if those kinds of happenings would occur as frequently or be recognized as valuable in an institution that has no established and accepted program.

Reward for Participation

Faculty members should be rewarded for participation in faculty development (Chait & Gueths, 1981; Gaff & Wilson, 1971; Hipps, 1982; Nelsen & Siegel, 1980). The reward structure should systematically be tied to specific behaviors that give evidence of participation in faculty development. Both economic and non-economic rewards are appropriate. The nature of the reward system is intangible evidence of the value system within the institution. For example, tacit approval is given to the status quo when such things as released time are not given to faculty members for designing new curricula or when colleagues question the scholarship of faculty members who participate in

innovative programs.

Regarding monetary rewards, there is some research suggesting that faculty value salary increases as much for the prestige and recognition attached as for the economic gains (Chait & Gueths, 1981). There are other factors involved, such as the salary level, the value attributed to money by individual faculty members and their colleagues, and external factors like cost of living. There is always the opportunity to link salary increases with improved performance as a result of participation in faculty development activities.

Practically, it is possible to establish a tradition of affirming participation in faculty development so that status among colleagues and self-esteem are enhanced. Particularly in smaller institutions participation would be observed, and gradually peer recognition would accrue (Chait & Gueths, 1981). On the other hand, those same authors pointed out that those who do not participate would not enjoy the psychological rewards experienced through recognition by colleagues and administrators. It is to be hoped that eventually nonparticipants would rethink the situation and decide to participate.

In designing the reward system for participation in faculty development efforts it is important to include those activities that are rewarding for faculty members. This can be done by finding out which activities individual faculty members value, and then providing the activities they value, as long as these are consistent with institutional goals.

Individual and Institutional Goals

Constructive efforts should be made to link individual goals and institutional goals, with acknowledgement of their interaction (Chait & Gueths, 1981; Gaff, 1977; Hipps, 1982). One process for doing this, proposed by Hipps (1982), consists in setting institutional goals and objectives after which comes an institutional needs assessment. Individuals' goals and objectives should come from both their own and the institution's needs assessments. The faculty development program, then, is designed from both the institution's and its members' needs assessments. The process has the potential for effectively linking individual goals and institutional goals.

It should be noted that in this type of process, which is ongoing in nature, from the beginning of their careers in the institution, individuals have the opportunity to examine their own and the institution's goals in a systematic fashion that invites honest assessment and evaluation. Gaff (1977) has pointed out that in those instances where the individual's goals diverge sharply from those of the institution, when the institution chooses to go in a direction that the faculty member does not want to go, then the faculty member should elect to leave the institution in order to continue development. For a middle-aged or older faculty member suddenly to realize that such divergence has happened would pose a serious problem for the individual. To begin a new career or to take a position in another institution at that time might not be a viable alternative.

For those persons who do experience this divergence and for whom career change might be the only answer, Palmer and Patton (1981) suggested a systematic method to help them with this change. It includes improved information on employment patterns, opportunities to assess personal and career goals, a focused program of career placement for faculty members leaving academia, promotion of positive attitudes among faculty toward career change and in departments fearful of the effects of career change, and consideration of financial effects of such a program. Benner and Potter (1981) proposed a model for career change for faculty in liberal arts colleges based on the institution's role in helping these faculty in the areas of self-awareness, career awareness and exploration, decision-making, and implementation of job search.

It would seem, however, that there is less chance of the need for sudden mid-career change in those institutions where the structures and policies encourage ongoing examination of individual and institutional goals.

Collegial Approach

There should be a collegial approach to faculty development, rather than an administrative approach (Becker, 1981). As described by Becker (1981), collegiality becomes an end in itself, even as it is a means of faculty renewing themselves. The word "colleague" comes from the Latin word, collega, which means "one appointed to serve with another" and implies a spirit of mutuality, of collaboration, of sharing. Because collegiality is a type of esprit de corps, it cannot be created by administrative command or faculty decision. It is, rather, the ongoing

outcome of all those processes that encourage faculty to work together as a community of scholars, challenging and supporting one another. It is a "spirit of mutual involvement in a common task; a readiness to share our own aspirations and perceptions; a respect for others and their ideas, even in disagreement; a willingness to examine the weak as well as the strong points on ones's (sic) own position" (Becker, 1981, p. 30).

The implications of this approach for faculty development are that faculty would form structures and engage in activities among themselves designed to help each other develop. Structures may be formal or informal, e.g., support groups that meet periodically to discuss issues related to performance, evaluation by inviting a colleague to analyze an in-class video tape and give on-the-spot feedback, confidential sharing of self-assessments in small groups. Activities using a collegial approach include scheduling forums in which faculty members give scholarly papers to each other, workshops in which faculty members share their expertise, team-teaching a course, using the mentor system effectively.

One particularly significant example of colleagueship is the use of an internal consultant (Bardon, 1982; Becker, 1981; Cooper, 1982; Parker & Lawson, 1978). These authors suggest several models for using an internal consultant in faculty development, all of which focus on the collegial aspect in which professionals consult with a professional of equal status about how to improve professional performance. Possible roles for a consultant include coordination of a faculty development

program; small group facilitation to discuss professional, curricular, instructional, and research concerns; one-on-one consultation available on a confidential basis to comprise classroom visitation by invitation with feedback conferences, similar feedback through the use of videotape, and encouragement of team-teaching and course auditing when appropriate; and encouragement of collegial relationships in the institution and with colleagues in the same discipline from other institutions, perhaps in a networking arrangement. The implications are limited only by lack of imagination in designing the role and its functions.

Existing and Planned Activities

Those responsible for designing faculty development programs should make use of existing campus structures, situations, and relations as well as design new activities (Becker, 1981). One major advantage of using existing circumstances is that it reduces the threat of change posed by a faculty development program, particularly if it is newly presented, by placing faculty development in a familiar perspective. A basic principle to lessen the threat of change is to ground the proposed change in historical perspective, showing how the change is related to what has been done in the past, to what is being done in the present, as well as to what is planned for the future. Seeing this relationship helps those affected by the change to adjust to it psychologically.

Faculty members are less likely to feel intimidated by that which is familiar. It is important to show how such things as participating in committee work, assuming leadership positions, developing and/or teaching a new course, designing a new program of studies, all of which are part of expected activities, are opportunities for professional growth, and, therefore, very much a part of faculty development.

It is also true that whether those responsible use existing structures, events, and circumstances or design new activities for faculty development, both approaches require planning. It presupposes careful planning that connects general principles of faculty development with the unique situational needs of individual institutions.

Individual and Group Activities

While faculty development occurs in individuals and it is true that programs should be designed to meet individual needs, there should be a balance between individual and group activities. "Too much stress on individual activity tends further to alienate faculty from one another in settings in which departmentalization is already the order of the day" (Nelsen, 1979, p. 4). Group activities encourage sharing which has the added side benefit of promoting the collegial spirit described above. Nelsen (1979) pointed out that group activities also cost the institution less than individual ones and that some individuals who might be reluctant to apply for competitive grants might well choose to participate in group activities. Another advantage is an alternate way to look at one's individual goals in company with those of other individuals in the same organization and compared with institutional goals.

Approaches to Faculty Development

As outlined in the review of literature, various approaches are possible in faculty development: professional development, personal development, career development, instructional improvement, organization development, and general improvement of the quality of academic life. In their third volume of a handbook for faculty development, Bergquist and Phillips (1981) recommended integrating the personal, instructional, and career development of individuals with organization development as the linking pin.

It would seem that all these approaches are valid in higher education and that one would take precedence over the others from time to time. It also appears that it is important to connect them in such a way that the person, whose development is occurring in all these areas simultaneously, can experience them as an integrated whole. This can be done by acknowledging how each area impacts on the other areas in overall effect. Since faculty development in a given institution is concerned with what happens in that particular institution, it is safe to say that the emphasis is on the professional, personal, and career development of individuals, and the organization development of the institution as these affect the members' performance within that institution. As far as the institution is concerned, the individual members give life to the institution, but the institution is the organizing principle that holds the common interests of its members.

In the case of a college, providing an education of a specific nature is its institutional goal; therefore, it must do everything possible to improve the education offered to its students. An overall goal of faculty development, then, should be the general improvement of the quality of academic life. This goal provides a focus for the five areas or approaches to faculty development. Katz and Kahn (1978) defined the boundaries of an open system such as a college as the cycles of events that occur within the institution. In an open systems approach, faculty development can be viewed as overlapping cycles of all those events and structures that involve faculty in the general improvement of the quality of academic life (Figure 1).

Figure 1 is a graphic representation of the interrelationships of various approaches to faculty development. The design is circular, which is to say that it has no beginning or end point. The lines are dotted to indicate permeability and interaction among all the approaches. There is no defined core. The arrows designate the dynamic, progressive, and multi-dimensional nature of faculty development. The design is meant to symbolize dynamism, variety, interaction, integration, and development.

Theoretical Bases

An accepted principle of research demands that one must ground hypotheses in theory in order to establish relationships such as causality, prediction, or explanation. Applying this principle to faculty development, it would seem essential to ground a model or program in theory in order to demonstrate why it succeeded or did not succeed.

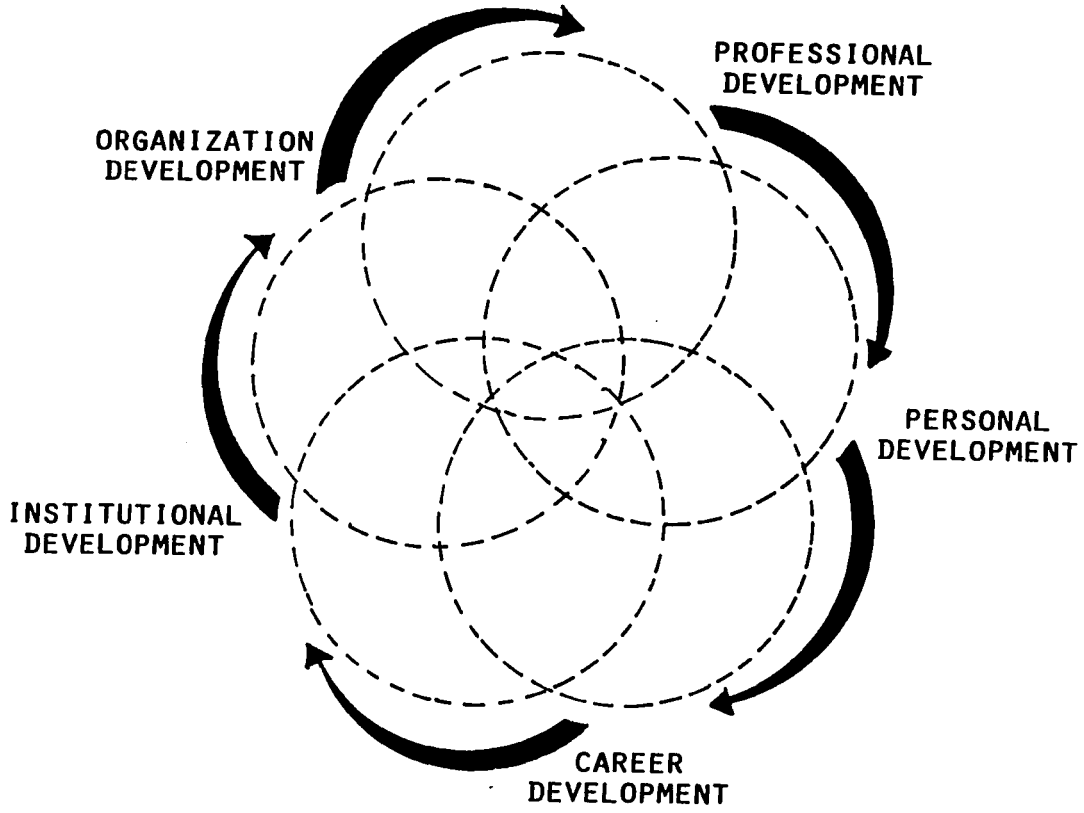

Figure 1. Open systems approach to faculty development.

The institution needs to work toward establishing its theoretical base for faculty development according to its unique situation. This implies designing a process to identify theories consistent with the institution's mission as it relates to its faculty members. The appropriate opportunities for doing this would seem to arise as part of the institution's ongoing assessment and evaluation, already referred to in the section on individual and institutional goals.

Many theories are applicable, particularly from the areas of adult development, career development, organization development, open systems, and the use of power. Examples of theories that have application to institutions of higher education are Neugarten's (1968a) theory on the effect of timing on determining whether transition periods become crises; Riegel's (1975) theory of asynchrony; Albrecht's and Gift's (1975) theory of anticipatory socialization; Schein's (1978) concepts of career anchors, innovation, and socialization; Chown's (1977) theory on the centrality of work in people's lives; the effect of work on people's development (Bharadwaj & Wilkening, 1980; Stevenson, 1977); the effect of professional rank as a central concept to explain how faculty members behave in academia (Braskamp et al., 1982); Katz's and Kahn's (1978) theory of open systems; and the theory of organicity (Burns & Stalker, 1961).

There are many other theories not mentioned above which apply to those parts of the institution that affect faculty development, some of which have been cited in Chapter II. The whole area of change theories has much to say to institutional efforts in this regard quite simply

because faculty development requires change. Grounding all efforts in appropriate theories is helpful because it gives direction, it provides a measure of success, and it prevents a haphazard approach to a vital function of the institution.

It is to be noted that, with respect to the particular transition needs of middle-aged and older faculty, the theories cited in Chapter II were chosen because they provided a framework in which to consider the developmental nature of human beings, an approach which allows for attention to transition periods. Besides process, institutions should be concerned about direction. The direction suggested by this author's model is clearly toward the ongoing development of individuals within the institution of higher education. To base programs on theories that deny this direction would be to nullify the suggested model.

Elements

Based on the assumptions and characteristics derived from a study of the literature, the following elements are presented as a way to address the specific needs of middle-aged and older faculty. The purpose of the proposed model of faculty development is renewal of these persons in a developmental context, and the intention of the model is to integrate what the institution offers them into the totality of the program.

The institution simultaneously recognizes the need for renewal and avoids singling out a group for special treatment. The elements are twofold: processes and activities/events/circumstances. The faculty development processes are all those institutional operations that promote a faculty development program. The activities, events, and circumstances are those elements which constitute the parts of the faculty development program.

Processes

Assessment of Faculty Needs

The assessment of faculty needs should be an ongoing process regularly and systematically scheduled. It should provide a clear picture of faculty needs for development. The most acceptable method is individual interviews conducted by a trained interviewer in a non-threatening role, e.g., the director of faculty development, an internal consultant, an external consultant. In these interviews confidentiality is essential. The interview provides an effective opportunity for middle-aged and older faculty to confide their personal and professional concerns. Furthermore, it has the potential to satisfy most of the basic assumptions of the model, (e.g., faculty development is about persons), and many of the model characteristics, (e.g., faculty development should be individualized). Another method to be used in lieu of interviews is a questionnaire aimed at self-assessment. This method also satisfies the basic assumptions and characteristics of the model.

Assessment of Institutional Needs

Like faculty assessment, the institutional assessment should be ongoing, scheduled with regularity, and systematic. It should provide a clear picture of institutional needs and a framework for planning faculty development. The assessment also satisfies some of the basic assumptions of the model, (e.g., communication as vital to faculty development). The methods of institutional assessment might include interviews with selected individuals from each component of the college community, questionnaires sent to a randomly selected sample of each component, and open forums led by trained facilitators for each component of the college community.

Feedback

There should be a systematic way of providing feedback on all assessment data to those concerned. Anonymity and confidentiality are preserved. Depending on the size of the institution, feedback can be given in small, homogeneous groups or by newsletters. In the case of feedback from faculty interviews or questionnaires, it should be given to the faculty by a faculty member (preferably the director of faculty development).

Matching Individual and Institutional Goals

The opportunity to match individual goals with institutional goals assumes that individuals have set their goals clearly and that the institution engages in a process of re-evaluating its goals systematically through institutional planning processes which involve the entire college community. The matching process can be carried out in small groups of faculty members or in interviews with a department head, the academic dean, the director of faculty development, or the internal consultant (who might also be the director of faculty development). Again, this process meets the assumptions, e.g., faculty development as an institutional responsibility and the interaction of the individual and the institution; and the characteristics, e.g., the use of existing and planned activities, the voluntary and individual nature of faculty development, and the opportunity to link individual with institutional goals.

Designing the Faculty Development Program

The design of the program should be based on the corporate faculty needs assessment and relevant professional literature, and it should reflect the matching of individual and institutional goals. Preferably, a faculty committee of interested persons led by the director of faculty development should develop and present the program to the entire faculty for their endorsement. It should be presented as a complete package: assumptions, characteristics, and elements. The amended program should then be presented to the administration for approval of content and funding. Priorities should be set by the faculty for implementation.

This step in the process meets the requirements of most of the assumptions, e.g., interaction of the individual and the institution, the institution as a system; and many of the characteristics, e.g., constructive rationale, collegial approach, communication.

Implementing the Program

The activities, events, and circumstances of the program should be implemented according to the priorities set by faculty request and administrative approval. The assumptions and characteristics of the overall program should be evident throughout the implementation. Those responsible for its implementation should exercise flexibility and discernment. Where possible, the institution's members' own expertise should be used to advantage.

Evaluating the Program

There should be an annual evaluation of the overall program according to its stated overall and specific objectives and applicable theories. The basic question is "How effective is the program in providing professional, personal, career, organizational, and instructional development?" or "What does the faculty development program do to improve the quality of academic life at this college?"

The information gained from evaluation is combined with the next needs assessment and the process continues. The effect of this process is that the faculty development program itself is evolving, is developmental in nature. Once begun, it does not become cast in bronze for all to admire. Even as the institution and its members develop

through engaging in the process, so does the product of the process develop as it changes to meet new needs identified by individuals involved in the process.

Financing the Program

A major concern regarding faculty development is economic. How much will it cost this year, next year, the year after? How does a small, four-year college provide sufficient variety of activities and events to meet individual developmental needs? Granted that colleges are in a period of retrenchment and that sources of external funding are dwindling in number and scope, the institution can take steps to spend dollars responsibly on faculty development. Along with the question, "Can colleges afford not to provide a faculty development program?", the institution needs to examine the question, "How can we afford it?"

The planning process outlined above enables the systematic making of decisions in allocating funds. It involves the faculty who give administrators information about which programs they, as individuals and as a collegial body, value. It involves the administration in stating the limit of funds available. It furthers the goals of the institution by providing opportunities for them to be assessed and for individuals' program preferences to be measured against institutional goals. It can be not only the vehicle for allocating funds, but also the link between the allocation of funds and the faculty development program that unfolds.

The step in the process that addresses designing the program is the place at which faculty and administrators interact to negotiate how money should be spent on faculty development. Administrators should set the limits and insure that institutional goals are supported, and faculty members should determine the priorities in programming that both support institutional goals and reinforce individual faculty members' desires and needs for development.

The advantages of engaging in this type of process are (a) that money is spent where it will be best appreciated by the faculty; (b) that administrators have a better understanding of what faculty members value in their own development; (c) that administrators are more likely to look favorably on requests for faculty development that emerge from the process than those presented in a less systematic fashion; (d) that the process demands an evaluation of the program to measure its impact on faculty development goals; and (e) that the institution has an ongoing means of making responsible decisions about spending money on faculty development. The process, because it involves faculty and administrators, institutional goals and individual goals, responds to the stated needs of all those who participate. It is, therefore, responsible in the best sense of that word.

Time as a Factor

A second major concern regarding faculty development is the issue of time. How do faculty members who, especially in a small college, already have overburdened schedules find the time to participate in faculty development? Although this is something that each institution must examine, there are some ways to find time generally applicable to all institutions.

Time, like money, is limited. In fact, it cannot be stretched as money can sometimes be stretched. But it can be distributed differently, just as money can be reallocated. Institutions should assess how faculty members spend their time, on what activities, then ask some questions: (a) Does that activity require that much time? Can the activity be modified to provide time for other things, i.e., faculty development? (b) What time is already set aside for such activities as faculty meetings? Can some of that time be given to faculty development (perhaps more profitably than some faculty meetings)? (c) Does the college have a week or several days preceding the opening of the fall semester and following the closing of spring semester for extended faculty meetings? Can some of that time be devoted to faculty development? (d) Are there some activities in which faculty already engage that need only explicit statement of their relationship to faculty development to reinforce the notion of time being spent on one's development (e.g., committee work, participation in planning processes, mentorship)? (e) Can faculty members share some duties and thereby free people on an individual basis to participate in a needed or desired

activity that would contribute to professional development? Could this sharing be an outgrowth of faculty collegiality?

However the institution chooses to handle the question of making time available, the choice should not have the effect of making participation in faculty development an added burden to an already busy, perhaps pressured person. Again, it is important to ask the faculty for their input in finding time, making time, redistributing time so that individuals can enter into activities with an appreciation of time well spent. If the program has value for them, then individual faculty members will spend the time. It should have value for them if it has been developed according to the suggested process because they have been involved in the process, stating their goals, their preferences, and setting priorities.

Activities/Events/Circumstances

Awards, Leaves, Grants, etc.

Flexible system of leaves. The institution, according to its financial capacity, should have a system of leaves that allows not only for paid, or partially paid, sabbaticals, but also for leaves of absence for persons going through crises. The college manual contains a clear statement of the details in awarding such leaves and sabbaticals.

Faculty exchange. The college arranges for faculty exchange with another institution in this or a foreign country. The policy delineates the procedures to be followed, e.g., salary arrangement.

Visitation to other institutions. Professors are encouraged to visit other institutions with travel expenses paid by the college. The purpose of such visits would be to have exposure to new ideas regarding teaching, curriculum, specific academic disciplines, professional development, etc.

Competitive grants for research, travel, innovations. The college sets aside a limited amount of funds each year for competitive grants. The grants are awarded by a committee of elected faculty members according to guidelines developed by the committee and approved by the faculty and administration.

Institutional support of professional activities. The college manual spells out the guidelines for determining the amount of money awarded, e.g., for attending a conference when presenting a paper, for attending a convention, for membership in professional organizations.

Annual excellence awards for teaching. Despite the fact that research indicates there is a low correlation between such awards and instructional improvement, there is the possibility of improving the process of communicating the significance of the awards, of deciding the recipients, and of making the awards specifically related to instructional improvement.

Workshops, Seminars, Lectures

Workshops on professional, personal, career, instructional, and organization development should address specific skills and knowledge in order to be helpful for faculty. The topics should be determined from a faculty needs assessment, given by competent authorities, and should make use of expertise on the campus when possible.

Assessment and Analysis

A clear distinction must be made between evaluation for purposes of promotion decisions (or other normative decisions) and evaluation for developmental purposes. It is probably helpful to use different instruments as well as different means of administering them. In the case of evaluation for promotion decisions, the director of faculty development should not be involved.

Student evaluation of teachers. Such evaluations, when used for developmental purposes, should be requested by the teacher and used in a systematic fashion. The director of faculty development can play a helpful role in interpreting the results of such evaluations so that the teacher can identify behaviors that need changing in order to improve instruction and/or relatedness to students.

Self-assessment. There are many instruments available, as cited in Bergquist and Phillips (1981) to help faculty members reflect on their own academic skills, understanding, and attitudes and on their professional behavior.

Analysis of in-class videotapes. This analysis can be done alone, with the assistance of a trusted colleague or a director of faculty development, or with a student not in the class who has been trained to observe teaching behavior and give feedback in company with a colleague of the teacher, the director of faculty development, or the internal consultant.

Growth contracts. These should be introduced after much dialogue with the faculty. The process for implementing them needs to involve the entire faculty, even though only a few individuals may choose them. It is important for everyone to understand their meaning and potential significance for growth.

Collegial Activities

Evaluation by colleagues. This activity overlaps with assessment activities. It includes either a formal or an informal evaluation by colleagues for developmental purposes. It might involve classroom visitation and feedback in a follow-up discussion of what happened in the classroom.

Courses offered by colleagues. Faculty members take courses offered by colleagues either for credit or as an audit in order to learn or develop skills and acquire new or deeper understandings. The principle behind this and all collegial activities is to "share the wealth."

Study groups. Colleagues form study groups to pursue a common academic interest.

Mentoring system. The college might have a policy of assigning experienced faculty members to act as mentors to new faculty members. This becomes a developmental activity for both the mentor and the young faculty member.

Support group within the institution. Faculty members meet on a regular basis to share professional concerns, discuss issues and values, and be consultants for one another.

Networking. Many colleges and universities have formed consortia, loosely aligned associations designed to help institutions cooperate in higher education within a given geographical area. The possibilities for networking among faculty include attending workshops and conferences sponsored by the consortium, sharing formally and informally with colleagues in the same discipline, visiting other campuses, exchanging faculty, having visiting faculty members, and participating in a speakers' bureau.

Sharing expertise on an individual basis. Faculty members frequently share their expertise with colleagues on an individual basis, acting sometimes as consultants and giving advice, for example, on how to handle a particular classroom situation or how to use new techonlogy in teaching. These kinds of encounters help develop both the one who shares and the recipient of the expertise.

Internal consultant. It is highly recommended that colleges release a full-time faculty member for part-time or full-time service as an internal consultant to help faculty members in their own development. This position could also serve to centralize all institutional faculty development efforts. The role requires someone accepted by the faculty as a colleague with expertise in teaching, research, planning, process analysis, organization development, and adult development.

Institutional Activities

Organization development activities. Participation in institutional planning at all levels contributes to organization development, e.g., needs assessment, institutional or departmental self-studies, goal-setting sessions.

Leadership opportunities. Serving as departmental chair or as committee chair provides the opportunity to develop and use skills in small group process, administration, organization, planning, and leadership.

Consulting opportunities within the institution. Such opportunities allow faculty members to exert leadership and be recognized for specific areas of expertise by administrators and colleagues.

Committee membership. Serving on committees exposes the faculty member to new ideas and information, and also provides an arena for new collegial relationships.

Miscellaneous Activities

Availability of specialists. The institution should make specialists available to support teaching and research, e.g., media and computer specialists, and researchers. These can be faculty or staff members of the college.

Availability of personal counseling. Although faculty members may not feel comfortable seeking out the assistance of a counselor on a small campus, there is the possibility of inter-institutional arrangements within the geographical area, e.g., through an existing consortium.

Availability of career planning/counseling. On small campuses where the institution cannot afford an office for career counseling of faculty, there is the possibility that the students' career counselor's services could be made available to the faculty. Another possibility is an inter-institutional arrangement through an existing corsortium.

Opportunities for physical fitness and exercise. Programs of physical fitness, including exercise and health awareness, can be made available through the physical education and health department.

Pre-retirement planning. The college should offer information and counseling to help faculty members plan for their retirement in a systematic way. A once-offered workshop on pre-retirement planning, while helpful as a beginning step, is not sufficient to help faculty members develop healthy attitudes toward this sensitive area. Planning for retirement involves more than finances; it also includes providing

accurate and useful information about what physical, psychological, and social changes to expect in one's life and about how to prepare for them. Faculty members need to know how their relationship to the institution will change as they approach retirement, what provisions the institution will make for their retirement, how the institution's perceptions and their perceptions of role expectations will change as they get older, and what, if any, their relationship to the institution will be after retirement.

This kind of knowledge and support base requires a systematic, coordinated delivery system with someone responsible for implementing it. The institutional attitude toward pre-retirement planning should be verbalized in the statement of commitment and in the policy and procedural statements in the college handbook.

Community service. Institutional expectations that faculty members will render service to the community through consultation, workshops, and the like can be turned into opportunities for faculty development by being recognized as such and by rewarding faculty for participation.

External consulting. Faculty members are paid for external consulting. The college can turn these occasions into faculty development by recognizing faculty accomplishments in consulting. Any time faculty members consult or give a workshop, they gain new knowledge and understandings in the experience of preparing for the activity, engaging in the activity, and interacting with the other professionals present.

Publishing, research, exhibits, etc. All these activities necessitate professional knowledge, planning, further study, delivery, and interaction with other professionals. Development of faculty members occurs in the process of participation and as an outcome of each of these activities. Each project is a new challenge for faculty members and has the potential to promote growth.

Developing new courses, programs, curricula. The same requirements and benefits as those pertaining to community service, consulting, publishing, research, and exhibits apply to developing new courses, programs, and curricula.

Teaching new courses. The same requirements and benefits pertain as above.

Professional reading. Professional reading is an individual's responsibility and is a must for anyone involved in education. It is a constant source of new knowledge and can be flexibly scheduled. However, it should be an acknowledged and regular part of an individual's schedule.

Relationships among Assumptions, Characteristics, and Elements

Figure 2 is a graphic outline of the elements in the model (the processes and the activities/events/circumstances) as they relate to each other. The arrows in the processes indicate the flow of decision making through each part of the process, which returns upon itself. The processes themselves were described earlier in this chapter in the

section entitled Processes. The arrows pointing in both directions between the outer and inner circles show the relationship between the processes and the activities/events/circumstances suggested for the program. As described earlier, the activities, events, and circumstances are designed, implemented, and evaluated as a result of the processes.

Figure 3 represents the relationship among the assumptions, the characteristics, and the elements of the model. It is drawn to show that (a) the model is to be presented and implemented as a whole unit; to separate the elements from the premises or characteristics would totally abrogate the intent and design of the model; and (b) each level within the cube contains all three parts: assumptions, characteristics, and elements, which is to say that any one part of the process or any one activity is based upon the assumptions and characteristics of the model. Figure 2, representing the elements, and Figure 3, representing the relationship among elements, assumptions, and characteristics, taken together, are meant to convey unity of intention amidst diversity of means.

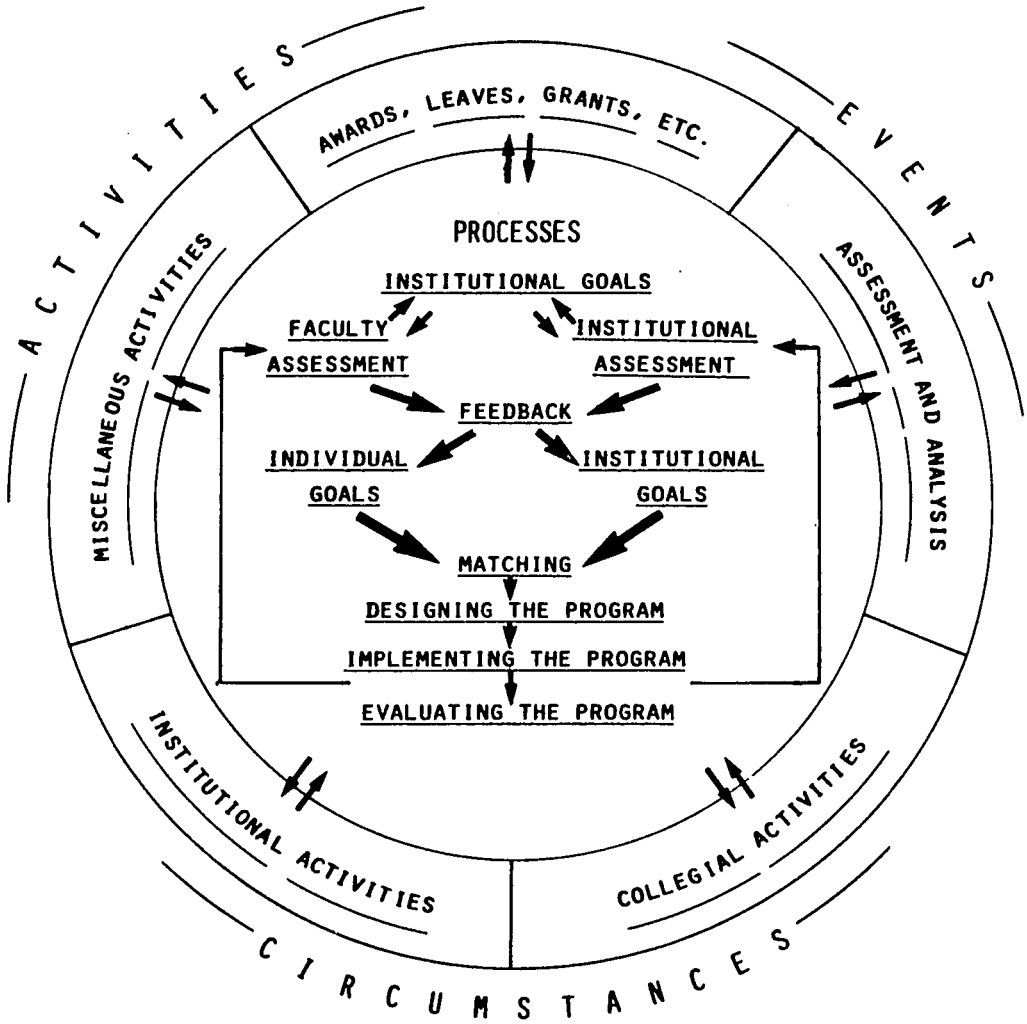

Figure 2. Elements of the proposed faculty development model.

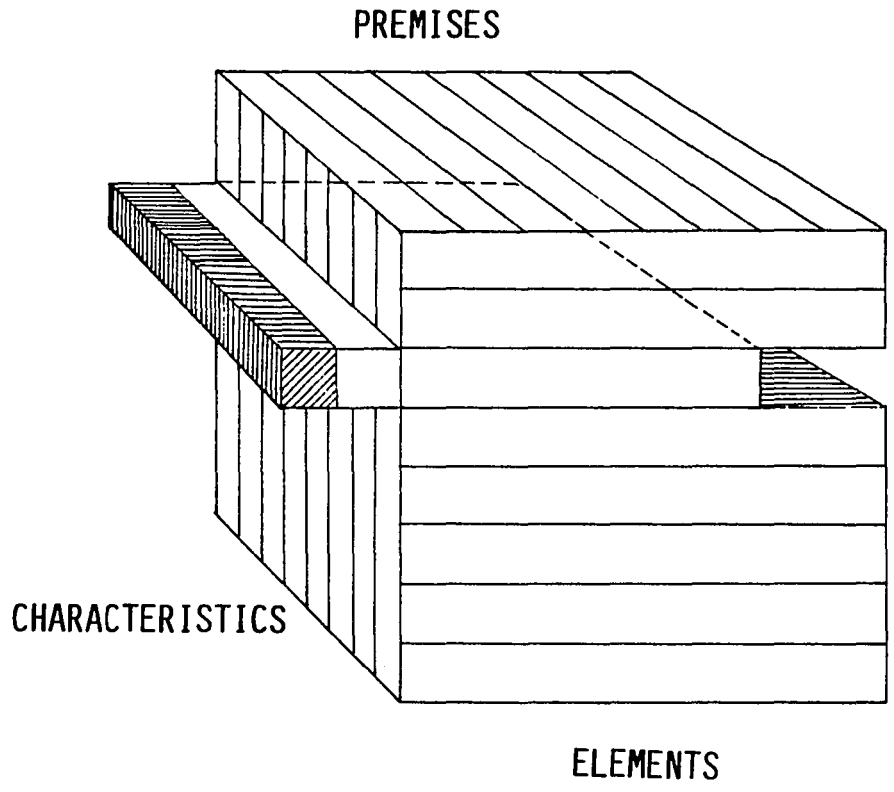

Figure 3. Relationship among assumptions, characteristics and elements of the proposed faculty development model.

Relationship of Model to Developmental Needs of Middle-aged and Older Faculty

How does the model address the institution's role in helping middle-aged and older faculty members through transition periods? Does the model provide treatment for this group that differs from that for the rest of the faculty? The model considers the issues associated with middle age and old age within a developmental context that recognizes different needs at different ages and professorial ranks. The best way to determine how the model does this is to consider its assumptions, characteristics, and elements in the light of characteristics related to middle-age and old-age transition periods.

Explicit statements in institutional policies acknowledge the importance of addressing developmental needs and accepting the normalcy of transition periods in individuals' lives. These policies are communicated to the faculty in a way that creates an understanding of institutional commitment to a developmental approach in addressing faculty issues. Evidence of this commitment is present in processes and procedures.

Administrators are aware of and acknowledge any special needs that individuals have as they experience crises that might occur during transition times. Administrators sensitively communicate to the faculty member what is available without making the individual feel set apart because of age. It is essential that administrators be knowledgeable about theories of adult development, organization development, career development, and change. They also need to know how to relate the

implications of these theories to specific situations involving individuals and groups.

Institutional processes that promote challenge through involvement and participation satisfy the need for faculty members to believe that their contributions make a difference and provide partial impetus to move an individual from one state to the next. Many of the activities furnish collegial support, as well as professional challenge to move forward. Flexibility in design of the faculty development program and variety of activities, events, circumstances provided confirm the institution's recognition of individual differences, thereby respecting the needs of persons in transition periods to move at their own pace and furnishing potential ways to avoid ennui.

The institution indicates its awareness of the environmental influence on members' development and takes positive steps to create an environment that encourages growth through policies, processes, and procedures. The administration involves the faculty in determining what that environment needs to be and to provide for its members and acknowledges the value of that involvement to the institution. This helps faculty to realize the significance of their role in the institution and encourages continued contributions.

The socialization processes send clear messages about the values of the institution as interpreted by administrators. These processes can be designed to meet specific needs of those in transition periods so that individuals are helped to grow. Structural challenges can invite a person to grow, e.g., to undergo a role change. Collegial activities,

e.g., support groups, formal and informal sharing sessions, the use of an internal consultant, can support and challenge the person in the new role. Administration can provide support through clearly stated role requirements that delineate specific responsibilities, accountability, and relationship to the institutional structure. Administrators, likewise, can re-structure reward systems to credit instructional and/or professional performance in the role by means of a carefully planned and implemented merit pay system.

Major consideration should be given to demonstrated differences in preference tied to faculty rank. Baldwin and Blackburn (1981) and Braskamp et al. (1982) observed that different professional and personal characteristics pertain to different professorial ranks. While there were some commonalities, there were also distinctions. Those responsible for faculty development should use available knowledge about what individual faculty members value at different faculty stages, their goals and aspirations, their motivations and achieving styles, their personal and professional goals, their sources of professional accomplishment, enjoyment, and pride, their satisfactions, and their response to environmental pressures as background information in designing the program to meet individual needs. An example might illustrate the need.

Although younger faculty members respond positively to formal workshops, senior faculty members grow increasingly independent with age and desire opportunities they design and engage in according to their self-determined schedule. A particular institution offers sabbatical

leaves with at least half pay for a year or semester leaves with whole salary under the assumption that this will renew faculty members. Professors who have worked in the institution for at least 10 years know that they may apply for sabbaticals or leaves on a "periodic" basis and may or may not get one, depending on available funding and other institutional factors. However, there is no clear, institutional statement on the value of the sabbatical as it relates to purpose, direction, and development. What might be helpful for the faculty member and the institution are (a) a statement of policy regarding the purpose of the sabbatical, the process of securing one, and the criteria by which one is considered eligible; (b) the effective communication of this policy to the faculty; (c) an understanding of the contribution of the sabbatical to one's development; and (d) an acceptance of the sabbatical as significant to and rewarding for that development. Without a statement of direction the value of the sabbatical might be reduced to doubtful status at best, and an opportunity to "get away from it all" at worst. Lacking is the link between individual efforts to develop professionally and reward for those efforts.

Processes that involve faculty members in institutional decision-making, e.g., designing the faculty development program, planning departmental expansion or even retrenchment, preserve the desire of persons to retain control over their own lives. Similarly, pre-retirement planning gives individuals the opportunity to make informed choices about their future. The fact that faculty members may choose to participate in faculty development efforts maintains individuals' control over their own lives. It should be noted that many

of the activities listed in the model are those normally expected of faculty members, e.g., committee membership, teaching a new course, and evaluation. It is possible that required responsibilities can serve as occasions of faculty development.

Participation in planning processes furnishes opportunities for individuals to consider their own career goals in relation to the institution's goals, thereby recognizing the significance of their contributions to the institution's life. Such opportunities address the need of persons in transition to explore the meaning of their life's work to themselves and to the institution.

The opportunity to seek professional counseling is afforded to those individuals whose internal resources are not sufficient to move them forward out of crisis, who need help to turn crises into occasions for growth.

An internal consultant is available to provide information, advice, challenge, and support in academic concerns. Perhaps the main advantage of the consultant, granted an area of expertise, is the nonthreatening collegial relationship which provides service by directing attention to specific behaviors and suggesting ways to change as needed.

Administrators can demonstrate respect for the contribution of wisdom by older faculty members in the way in which assignments to committees and special task forces are made, consultation is sought, and mentoring is encouraged. Where functioning is diminished, help is provided, and gradual displacement is sensitively handled.

Summary of Model

The model presupposes a vision of the institution that includes concern for its members. It is a way of thinking about individuals, faculty members, in the organization. Predicated on the view that faculty members are in process of developing throughout their careers, it presents a way to assist them in this development and provides a framework for addressing transition needs of individuals at middle age and old age.

Does it cost any more than any other model of faculty development? A close look reveals that the major costs are those associated with awards, leaves, and grants, and, to some extent, workshops. One element, the internal consultant, would require a part-time or full-time salary; this element is strongly encouraged because it can be the key to accomplishing almost every other aspect of the model. While there are some hidden costs, they are the same hidden costs associated with any faculty development program, e.g., travel, utilities, professional time. Making fund allocation part of the design process helps to control costs and direct responsible spending.

What is unique in this model? It holds no surprises. Its real value is the attempt to integrate assumptions, characteristics, and elements into a whole design that focuses on the interaction of the individual and the institution (see Figure 3). Neither the assumptions, the characteristics, nor the elements have the intended meaning when presented alone. The model provides the institution with a means of addressing transition needs of middle-aged and older faculty members

without setting a group apart, and it provides these faculty members with the opportunity to continue to develop within the institution.

CHAPTER IV

METHODOLOGY

This study was based upon both theory and research. The present chapter describes the organization and the methods used to conduct the study. It is divided into three main parts: the construction of a model for faculty development to address the developmental needs of middle-aged and older faculty members, a survey of four-year colleges to determine the presence and extent of faculty development programs to address this issue, and the selection and in-depth study of one college that describes a faculty development program which resembles the model. The section describing the survey of four-year colleges discusses the choice of population, the development of the questionnaire, the sampling technique, and the statistical analysis of the questionnaire responses. The section on the selection and on-site visit to an exemplary college discusses the rationale for the selection, the development of the interview questions, the interviewing technique, and the analysis of both the interview responses and the institutional documents relevant to faculty development.

Construction of the Model

The first part of the study was the development of a model for faculty development which would address the needs of faculty members during the transition periods of middle age and old age. This model was described in detail in Chapter III.

Survey of Colleges

Population

The second part of the study consisted of a survey of the 166 Level II institutions accredited by the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools (SACS) as of December 13, 1982, and was intended to determine whether, in what manner, and to what degree, four-year colleges in the southern region are addressing the issue of meeting the needs of middle-aged and older faculty members during transition periods.

The study focused on four-year institutions which did not have graduate programs. This focus emphasized the need to address the potential ennui experienced by those middle-aged and older faculty members who do not experience the challenges and stimulation present in teaching graduate students, directing theses, and doing research as part of their academic responsibilities.

Confining the study to one type of institution, i.e., the four-year college, was done in order to make the study more easily manageable. This particular kind of institution was chosen for its unique characteristics, as stated above. Furthermore, the writer is a resident of this area, is employed in a four-year college granting bachelor's degrees, and is Director of Faculty Development in that college. In sum, the interest in this particular population flowed naturally from the writer's geographical and employment situation.

This population was considered to be typical of the total population of colleges which grant baccalaureate degrees as their highest degree, since SACS is one of the six regional agencies in the United States that accredits institutions of higher education according to levels of degrees awarded. The results of the survey should be applicable to the total population of four-year institutions in the United States whose highest degree is the bachelor's degree.

Development of the Questionnaire

A questionnaire was constructed by extracting from the model those aspects considered most central. A crosswalk technique was used to establish the relationship between each item of the questionnaire and the premises, characteristics, and elements of the model.

In addition to the demographic data about the institution, the questionnaire asked for the number of faculty members according to age, rank, sex, full-time or part-time employment, and for the percentage of tenured faculty across professional levels. Questions regarding the faculty development program focused on the formal or informal nature of the program, the program director, the policies regarding faculty development, the institutional budget for faculty development, the theoretical bases for faculty development, the rewards for faculty participation in the program, the means of communicating the program to the faculty, the evaluation of the program, the presence of 45 specific program activities, the participation of faculty on a voluntary or required basis, the degree of faculty involvement in the design of activities, the degree of faculty participation in the activities themselves, and institutional efforts to meet the developmental needs of

middle-aged and older faculty. A copy of the questionnaire is included in Appendix A-4.

The questionnaire was field-tested by asking two academic officials not in the target group to see if the questions were clear, to estimate how much time was necessary to complete it, to determine if anything essential had been omitted, to make suggestions for improvements and comments regarding its validity, and to identify any problems or difficulties encountered and any issues left out.

Several decisions were made as a result of the field-testing. The date of return was extended from December 23, 1983 to January 10, 1984; the format was arranged so that all faculty development activities were printed on one page, with instructions from the previous page repeated in an abbreviated version on the same page with the activities; and the term "old age faculty" was changed to "older faculty." To clarify ambiguities, the definition of formal faculty development programs in question 3 was specified by adding "organized" in parentheses next to the term "formal," the number of examples of noneconomic gain in question 12 was increased to include "CEUs" and "consideration in promotion and tenure decisions," the response of "Do not know" was added to the responses of "Yes" or "No" on question 14 regarding governing board/administration awareness of the issue of middle-aged and older faculty, the meaning of faculty involvement in question 22 was specified by adding parenthetically "either individually or through faculty representatives," and the term "budget for faculty development" in question 23 was specified by changing it to "line-item budget for faculty development."

Two variables and one open-end question were added to improve the coverage of faculty development as follows: a question regarding the source of funding for faculty development; the division of a question regarding policy and programs of faculty development for middle-aged and older faculty into two questions, number 15 on policy and number 16 on programs; and the addition of question 17 to determine what was being done for middle-aged and older faculty that was different from what was done for the rest of the faculty.

Census Technique

Every institution in the population was included in the survey. A list of these institutions is referenced in Appendix A-1. The questionnaire, accompanied by individually addressed cover letters from Dr. Jack I. Bardon, Excellence Foundation Professor at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro, and from the investigator, was sent to the chief academic officer of each institution in the population. Copies of these letters are in Appendix A-2 and A-3, respectively.

The first mailing yielded a return rate of 40.0%; a second, follow-up mailing increased the return rate to 63.3%; and a follow-up telephone call and a third mailing of the questionnaire (if requested by the institution) brought the total return rate to 75.3%, representing 125 of the 166 colleges in the selected population.

There is reason to believe that the institutions that returned the questionnaire (the sample) adequately represent the population, based on these facts: (a) the 75.3% rate of return is believed to be large enough to be representative of the population; (b) the ratio of public/

private institutions in the sample (0.106) is similar to the ratio in the population (0.122); and (c) private institutions outnumber public ones approximately nine to one in both the sample and the population, i.e., 90.4% of the sample and 89.2% of the population are private institutions. Numerically, there were 12 public and 113 private institutions in the sample, and 18 public and 148 private institutions in the population (based on The Southern Association of Colleges and Schools Proceedings, 1983).

An examination of statistics available in The 1983 Higher Education Directory for the institutions that did not return the questionnaire allowed the researcher to compute the mean enrollment of private institutions in the population as 892.8 full-time equivalent (FTE) students. This is similar to the mean enrollment of private institutions in the sample (944.6 FTE students). Therefore, the data appear to represent the private institutions reasonably well.

The same source revealed that the mean enrollment of the six public institutions which did not return the questionnaire is 3145.67 FTE students. There is a large discrepancy between the mean enrollment reported by the 12 public institutions in the sample (1677.2 FTE students) and the mean enrollment of public institutions in the population (2166.72 FTE students). Therefore, regarding the sample, one must caution that the data collected may under-represent the larger public institutions.

Analysis of Questionnaire Responses

The data, which were mostly categorical, were entered on IBM coding forms and proofread once by one person calling out the numbers and another one checking the coding sheets. These data were typed directly into the computer and verified by using the edit function of the SPSSX statistical package. Further verification of the data was made by close study of the frequencies to determine if there were any obvious inequities, e.g., public schools that were coded as denominational.

The questionnaire responses were then analyzed by using the SPSSX statistical package. Frequencies (or percentages), mean scores, or median scores, were reported as applicable for each questionnaire item. These descriptive statistics were calculated first for each item based on the responses of all 125 institutions in the sample; percentages reported were based on all 125 institutions. Tukey's (1977) box-and-whisker charts were used to compare the amounts of dollars available for faculty development according to source (e.g., state funds, foundations, donations, etc.) in terms of median location and spread.

Following an analysis of responses by the total sample to questionnaire items, the data were subdivided into two groups based on whether the institutions were trying to meet the developmental needs of middle-aged and older faculty members or not. Frequencies, means, or medians of the two groups were then compared on each variable. Following that, the data were subdivided into two groups according to the public or private nature of institutions, and the same analyses were performed on each variable.

Finally, it was expected that there would be a pattern within faculty development programs in the relationship between certain key variables. To describe this pattern quantitatively, phi coefficients were computed to measure the relationship between the following institutional variables: the presence of programs which address the developmental needs of middle-aged and older faculty; the presence of a line-item budget for faculty development; the presence of a predominately formal, institution-wide program for faculty development; the presence of an official responsible for the faculty development program; the existence of a written policy on faculty development; the existence of a theory-based program of faculty development; the existence of 20 or more different activities for faculty development; the voluntary participation of faculty in 20 or more activities provided; a mean score of 3.5 or higher (on a scale of 1 to 5, where 1 is Very Little and 5 is Very Much) on faculty involvement in the design of faculty development activities; a mean score of 3.5 or higher (on the same scale) on faculty participation in the faculty development activities themselves; systematic evaluation of the faculty development program; and rewards given to faculty for participating in faculty development. The phi coefficients were then reported in a correlation matrix.

The purposes of the analysis of data for all institutions in the sample were to indicate whether institutions were doing anything about faculty development for middle-aged and older faculty, to see whether their faculty development programs contained major components of the model described in Chapter Three, and to report the extent to which these institutions are addressing the needs of middle-aged and older

faculty.

Selection of and Visit to Model College

The third part of the study was the selection and in-depth analysis of a model institution which has addressed the issue of middle-aged and older faculty in its faculty development program.

Selection Process

The statistics from the questionnaire responses were used to identify the one institution which appeared to be doing more than other responding institutions about addressing the needs of middle-aged and older faculty during transition periods. An institution was chosen which indicated by its questionnaire responses that it met pre-established criteria: (a) it has concern about the issue of addressing the needs of faculty during middle-age and old-age transition periods; and (b) in comparison with the other respondent institutions, it appeared to possess a greater number of the significant components of the suggested model. Some of the key components included in the model were a college-wide policy and programs for faculty development; a reasonably wide range of activities for faculty development; concern for individual development and for personal, professional, and career development of faculty; an official responsible for faculty development; a written policy for faculty development; a program based on acceptable theories of adult development, organization development, systems, motivation, etc.; a budgetary line-item for faculty development; an internal consultant for faculty development; faculty participation in the design of activities and voluntary faculty

participation in the activities; systematic evaluation of the faculty development program; assessment of faculty development and institutional needs; and concern for the developmental needs of middle-aged and older faculty as an integral part of the entire faculty development program. A computer check was made to identify the sample colleges that possessed all these components in its faculty development program; the deciding criterion was evidence that a program addresses the developmental needs of middle-aged and older faculty, as determined by appropriate responses to questions 14 through 20.

Development of the Interview Questions

Prior to the on-site visit to the model college, an interview schedule was developed. The questions were derived from the responses made by the Director of Faculty Development at this college to the questionnaire and from principles taken from the model described in Chapter III. Questions regarding the cost of programs to meet the developmental needs of these age groups and the results and success of these programs came from suggestions made by one of the field-testers to improve the survey questionnaire. These items were judged by the researcher to be more appropriate to an in-depth study of a model institution than to the survey of the population and were excluded from the survey questionnaire. A copy of the interview schedule is included in Appendix C-1.

Interviewing Technique

The on-site visit consisted of a semi-structured interview with the Director of Faculty Development and the collection and review of relevant documents. The substance of the interview was a follow-up on the questionnaire topics related specifically to institutional awareness of and response to the developmental needs of middle-aged and older faculty members; the role of the Director of Faculty Development with respect to addressing these needs; faculty response to the institutional faculty development program for middle-aged and older faculty; the integration of this program with institutional goals; and the cost, results, and success of this program.

The interviewer audio-taped and later transcribed the two 90-minute sessions. No attempt was made to check the reliability of the transcription process; an edited version of the transcribed tapes is provided in Appendix C-2.

The Director at the selected institution provided copies of the institution's documents and policies on faculty responsibilities, its document on the Faculty Development Center, a proposal for Faculty Development in Interdisciplinary Studies for Senior Faculty, and its Long Range Statement on Faculty Development (1983-1990).

Analysis of Interview and Relevant Documents

The transcribed responses of the Director of Faculty Development to the interview questions were studied along with the institutional documents related to faculty development in the light of the model for faculty development. The institution's program for faculty development as it relates to developmental needs of middle-aged and older faculty was described in some detail, and similarities and differences between this college's program for faculty development and the model described in Chapter III were noted. These similarities and differences, along with the data from the questionnaire survey, were then used to reinforce or alter the proposed model. These modifications are reported in Chapter VI.

CHAPTER V

FINDINGS

Introduction

As reported earlier in Chapter IV, 125 institutions from a population of 166 four-year colleges in the southern United States returned the questionnaire. Eight of the 125 gave only demographic data regarding the institution and offered the following reasons for not completing the questionnaire: Two had no funds for faculty development and therefore had no program; one had insufficient staff to answer the questionnaire; one found it too long; one stated that it did not apply at that institution; one stated it did not apply because questions were too specific and asked for information in a format different from the institution's way of organizing those data, besides being too long; one stated that there was not enough of a program to warrant answering it; and one had a new administrator and no time to answer it. The statistics that follow, unless stated otherwise, are based on information given by the 125 institutions that returned the questionnaire.

The chapter is organized into two main sections: the questionnaire findings and the findings from the selection and in-depth study of the model college.

The section on the questionnaire findings is divided into five main sections: a description of all institutions that responded to the survey, a comparison of those institutions which stated that their faculty development programs address the needs of middle-aged and older faculty with those institutions that stated they do not address these needs, a comparison of public with private institutions, a pattern of characteristics in faculty development programs, and a summary of findings.

The description of all institutions that returned the survey questionnaire is subdivided into two sections: a demographic profile of the institution and of the faculty and a description of the faculty development program. The description of the faculty development program addresses general characteristics such as the presence of a director of faculty development, the presence of a written policy on faculty development, the existence of a line-item budget for faculty development, the development of middle-aged and older faculty, budget and funding for faculty development, faculty development activities and the participation of faculty in those activities, and policy statements on faculty development.

The section comparing the characteristics of faculty programs that address the developmental needs of middle-aged and older faculty with the characteristics of those programs that do not address them has one subsection: differences in frequencies and means of all institutions on selected attributes of the faculty development model.

The section comparing public with private institutions is subdivided into two subsections: differences in demographic characteristics and differences in general characteristics of faculty development programs.

The section on the selection and study of the model college is divided into two subsections: the selection of the model college and the on-site visit.

Questionnaire Findings

Description of Institutions Responding to the Questionnaire

This section describes what the sample institutions are doing about faculty development and to what extent they are doing it. It also forms the basis for describing whether and to what extent the sample institutions have faculty development programs that contain major components of the model delineated in Chapter III.

Demographic Profile of the Institutions and Faculty

The modal four-year college in the sample is a private, denominational, coeducational, boarding and commuting institution. The average enrollment is 969 students. Table 2 summarizes the demographic data for all respondent institutions.

Most of the faculty in the sample institution are male, middle-aged, at the associate and full professorial levels. About half of the sample (49.6%) are tenured, full-time faculty. Table 3 reports the profile for full-time faculty based on data from 86 sample institutions; data are missing for part-time faculty in most cases. Table 3 shows

that, on average, in order of highest to lowest frequency, faculty are middle-aged, young, and older, according to age; assistant professors, associate professors, full professors, and instructors, according to rank; and male, female, according to sex. On average, more instructors are young, than are middle-aged and older. More assistant professors are either young or middle-aged, rather than older. More associate professors and full professors are middle-aged than are young or old.

Faculty Development Program

A complete listing of the raw data from all the questionnaires returned may be obtained by contacting the researcher. Directions for doing this are given in Appendix B-1. All analyses are based on these data. Summary responses of all institutions on questionnaire items 3 - 16, 18, 20 and 23 are reported in Appendix B-2.

General characteristics. Of the sample institutions, 61.6% have an official responsible for faculty development programs, 53.6% of which are formal and institution-wide. The responsibility is part-time in 57.6% of the institutions and is carried out by an administrator in 28.8% of the institutions or by a person who is both a faculty member and an administrator in 29.6% of the institutions. Most institutions use faculty meetings (79.2%), the faculty handbook (64.8%), memoranda (65.6%), orientation (59.2%), and departmental meetings (52.0%) to communicate faculty development policy and programs to the professors and staff. A smaller number of institutions use interviews (24.8%), group meetings (31.2%), or bulletin boards (40.4%) for this purpose.

Table 2

Demographic Characteristics for All Institutions Responding to the Survey

Characteristics	All institutions N	All institutions %
Ownership		
Public	12	9.6
Private	113	90.4
Affiliation[a]		
Denominational	88	70.4
Non-denominational	18	14.4
Gender restriction		
Coeducational	104	83.2
Single sex--male	6	4.8
Single sex--female	10	8.0
Missing data	5	4.0
On-campus residence status		
Boarding only	4	3.2
Commuting only	5	4.0
Boarding and commuting	87	69.6
Missing data	29	23.2

[a]Not all private institutions marked this item.

Table 3

Mean Numbers of Full-time Faculty by Rank, Sex, and Age for All Respondent Institutions[a]

Rank	Sex	Age 24-37	Age 38-59	Age 60-70
Instructor				
	M	3.47	2.87	1.25
	F	3.72	2.68	1.00
Assistant Professor				
	M	6.70	5.90	1.38
	F	4.00	4.30	1.16
Associate Professor				
	M	3.20	9.08	2.55
	F	1.70	3.42	1.40
Full Professor				
	M	2.63	8.50	2.93
	F	1.44	2.04	1.71

[a]Based on data estimated by survey respondents

The predominant emphasis in faculty development programs is on matching the program with individual faculty needs (44.0%); 16.8% of the institutions indicated that they combine matching the program with individual faculty needs and matching it with institutional needs. The approaches to faculty development vary, with the major approaches being professional development (86.4%) and instructional improvement (70.4%). One-fourth (24.8%) of the institutions have a written policy on which faculty development programs are based; 64.0% have no written policy. Programs are evaluated mostly by both administration and faculty

(54.4%), but not on a systematic basis. Faculty members are rewarded for participating in faculty development activities by economic gains in 64.8% of the institutions and by non-economic gains in 68.8% of the institutions. One-tenth (10.4%) of the institutions base programs on theory; 81.6% use no specific theory. One-half or 49.6% of the institutions have a line-item budget for faculty development; 42.4% do not have one.

Table 4 presents the frequencies of institutions that reported the presence of selected premises, characteristics, and elements of the model for faculty development described in Chapter III. It does not include aspects directly related to addressing the developmental needs of middle-aged and older faculty members (which will be discussed below), nor does it include specific activities of a faculty development program (also discussed below).

Faculty development of middle-aged and older faculty. The questionnaire contained six questions specifically aimed at determining institutional awareness of and active concern about the developmental needs of middle-aged and older faculty. This section describes what institutions in the sample are doing about the issue and how much they are doing. Table 5 summarizes the frequencies of institutions reporting specific concern for the developmental needs of middle-aged and older faculty members.

Table 4

Frequencies of Institutions Reporting Selected Attributes of Faculty Development Model

Characteristics	All institutions N	All institutions %
Nature of program		
Formal, institution-wide	67	53.6
Formal, in units	10	8.0
Informal	35	28.0
Missing data	13	10.4
Official responsible for program		
Yes	77	61.6
No	4	3.2
Committee	3	2.4
Missing data	41	32.8
Emphasis of program		
Matching program with individual needs	55	44.0
Matching program with institutional needs	36	28.8
Both	21	16.8
Missing data	13	10.4
Written policy		
Yes	31	24.8
No	80	64.0
Missing data	14	11.2
Evaluation of program[a]		
Systematic	42	32.6
Non-systematic	68	54.4
No evaluation	8	6.4
Line-item in budget		
Yes	62	49.6
No	53	42.4
Missing data	10	8.0
Rewards for participation[b]		
Economic	81	64.8
Non-economic	86	68.8
No reward	8	6.4
Theory-based program		
Yes	13	10.4
No	102	81.6
Missing data	10	8.0

[a]Respondents could check more than one response among seven choices, collapsed here into three variables; therefore, the total does not equal 100%. [b]Respondents could check more than one response; therefore, percentages total more than 100%.

Table 5

Frequencies of Institutions Reporting Evidence of Concern about Developmental Needs of Middle-aged and Older Faculty

	All institutions	
Evidence of concern shown in	N	%
Governing board/administration		
Yes	48	38.4
No	44	35.2
Unknown	23	18.4
Missing data	10	8.0
Institutional policies		
Yes	20	16.0
No	93	74.4
Other[a]	1	0.8
Missing data	11	8.8
Institutional programs		
Yes	26	20.8
No	86	68.8
Other[a]	1	0.8
Missing data	12	9.6
Institutional plans[b]		
Yes	14	11.2
No	67	53.6
Other[a]	1	0.8
Missing data	43	34.4

[a]Policies, programs, plans apply to all faculty members in this institution. [b]Only those institutions that indicated they had no program to respond to developmental needs of middle-aged and older faculty members responded to this item.

From these data it is apparent that there was some concern about the issue at the board of trustees and administrative level when 38.4% of the institutions in the sample reported the issue to be important to their administration and board. The concern was expressed in the institutional policies of 16.0% of the sample, and in institutional plans to address the issue in 11.2% of the sample. However, 74.4% of the sample indicated they had no institutional policies addressing this issue, and 68.8% indicated they had no programs addressing the issue.

In the open-end question regarding evidence of concern on the part of the governing board and/or administration, 42 of the 48 institutions which reported that their governing boards and/or administration considered the developmental needs of middle-aged and older faculty members to be an important issue specified some evidence of this concern. About one-third of the comments indicated that no distinction was made between the developmental needs of these two age groups and the rest of the faculty. Twenty-one respondents pointed out financial arrangements favoring senior faculty through such means as sabbaticals, grants, research leaves, retraining, travel, postdoctorate courses, early retirement, renewal programs, and allocation of endowment funds for senior faculty. Other efforts included the design and availability of faculty workshops, faculty development reviews of senior faculty, specific contractual arrangements, and administrative support as indicated by discussions from the board level down and by the academic dean's reports to the president and the board.

Nineteen of the 20 respondents reporting that their institutions' policies addressed the developmental needs of middle-aged and older faculty members cited supporting evidence. Again, about one-third of the comments indicated that no distinction was made between these and other age groups. Others pointed out that preference was given to senior faculty in awarding financial support for research and study, a high percentage of faculty participation in faculty development activities, and the inclusion of senior faculty in some decision-making. Four institutions indicated that their policies were currently under review.

Twenty-five of the 26 institutions which stated that their institutions addressed developmental needs in their programs wrote comments specifying how they do this. Again, about half of the comments indicated that no distinction was made between middle-aged and older groups and other age groups. Programs which were listed included retirement and renewal workshops, the use of consultants, opportunities for travel, seminars on teaching technology and on personal development, in-service, conferences, specific contractual arrangements individually made, administrative encouragement, peer pressure, sabbaticals, summer awards for long-time service, guidelines reworked on new and different kinds of faculty development support for middle-aged and older faculty members, interviews of senior faculty about their needs, and interaction of all age groups in ongoing faculty development programs.

All 14 institutions indicating that they had plans to address this issue in the future made comments on these plans. Six of these 14 respondents stated that the plans were as yet undeveloped. Others indicated increased funding, use of faculty growth contract plans, faculty development committees to address faculty needs (specifically directed to the improvement of instruction and student advising), development of policy, program, and publicity regarding faculty development, and a proposed plan to establish a more active role for faculty to keep them current.

Twenty-one respondents made additional comments regarding faculty development as it addresses the needs of middle-aged and older faculty members. Several indicated that they recognized the need to address this issue and would like to have information about it shared. Some pointed out the effect of financial constraints on all faculty development efforts. Five respondents reported that this was not now an issue for them; however, three of the five institutions believe that it will become an issue. One respondent reported adminstrative tolerance toward middle-aged faculty and allowance of "gracious withdrawal of older faculty from active participation rather than abrupt suspension of duties." One respondent indicated that the academic dean had informal visits with prospective retirees and encouraged retirement planning.

From these comments, it appears that at least one-third of the sample were trying to look at the issue of helping faculty meet the developmental needs associated with middle age and old age. There was no evidence to indicate that institutions have designed fully developed

plans to do this; however, there was evidence of concern. As one respondent put it, the institution "will develop plans for this group if [it is] determine[d] what they are." In about half of those cases which indicated they are doing something to address this issue, the comments seemed to suggest that the same program was offered for all faculty members and that nothing different was offered for these age groups.

Budget and sources of funds for faculty development. Respondents were asked to give exact budgetary and funding amounts where the information was accessible. Where it was not accessible, they were asked to estimate these amounts. The dollar amounts reported by respondents covered a wide range; therefore, the median was chosen to represent the data because it is not influenced by outlying scores. Median amounts reported in Table 6 are based on a mixture of exact and estimated figures. Respondents did not indicate which figures were exact and which were estimated; therefore, it is not possible to distinguish between them.

Table 6

Median Amounts of Dollars for Faculty Development According to Source in the Institutions Responding

Source of dollars	Median amounts
State funds	$5,000
Grants	$10,050
Private donation	$10,000
Foundations	$12,500
Tuition	$5,400
Other	$19,000
Total amount budgeted	$15,000

Figure 4 presents Tukey's (1977) box-and-whisker charts to show graphically the median location and spread of dollars available for faculty development according to source. The top of the box represents the 75th percentile, the bottom represents the 25th percentile, and the horizontal line represents the median score. Minimum and maximum scores are indicated by the bottom and the top of the vertical line drawn through the box. The reader can locate at a glance the relation of the median score to the spread of data between the 25th percentile and the 75th percentile. Although the range of dollar amounts is widespread, most of the amounts reported by the sample institutions are closer to the 25th percentile.

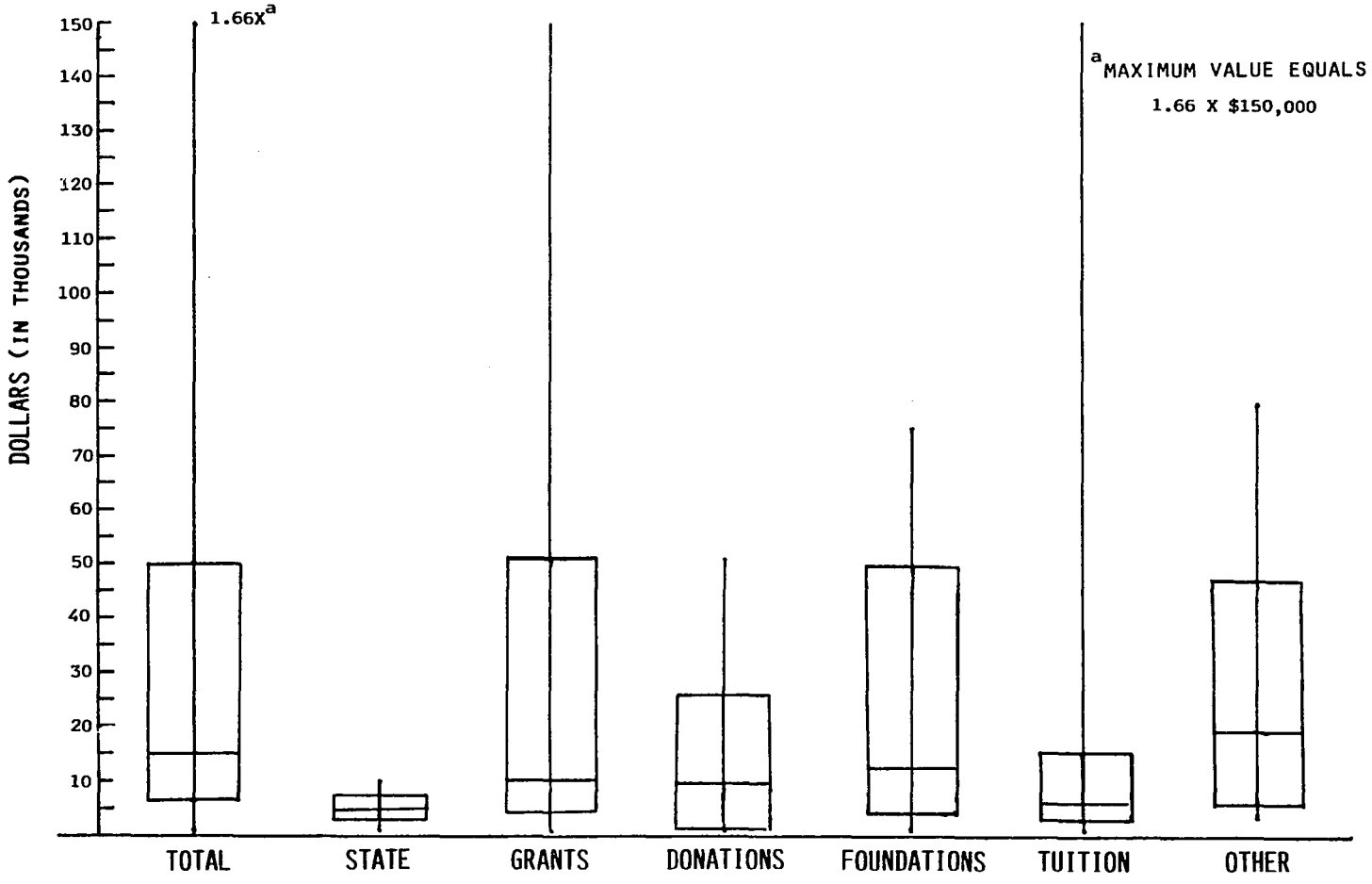

FIGURE 4. SOURCE OF FUNDS FOR FACULTY DEVELOPMENT.

There were some problems observed regarding the data on sources of funding and budgetary amounts. Fewer than half of the public institutions in the sample indicated they received funds from the state for faculty development. These data were missing for the rest of the public institutions. With respect to the other sources of funding, it is not possible to indicate why the data were missing: either there were incomplete responses or funds might not have been available from the sources listed. The median amounts of specific funding sources are based on only 4% to 20% of the total number of questionnaires returned. The highest percentage of responses regarding budgetary amounts was 53%, reporting the total amount of the line-item budget for faculty development. Thirty-eight percent of the returned questionnaires responded to a question regarding the percentage of the institutional budget devoted to faculty development. The response ranged from 0.0004% to 6.5% of the budget, with a median percentage of 0.741%. Therefore, there is a question regarding the reliability of these data on funding and budgetary amounts, because of the low response rates to these questions and the questionable amounts reported by sample institutions. Therefore, the data must be interpreted with caution.

Faculty development activities and faculty participation. This section will discuss the responses of sample institutions regarding four aspects of 45 different faculty development activities listed in the questionnaire: the number and extent of activities offered, the number of activities offered according to voluntary or required nature, the degree of faculty involvement in the design of activities, and the degree of faculty participation in the activities.

The responses to individual faculty development activities offered by institutions showed that out of a possible 45 activities listed in question 22, the mean number of activities offered across all sample institutions was equal to 17.37 and the mean number of activities offered in units (e.g. departments) across all sample institutions was equal to 3.70.

Table B-3 in Appendix B shows the number and percentage of sample institutions that offered each activity throughout the institution or in individual units. Those activities offered on an institution-wide basis, as opposed to a unit basis, which ranked highest in frequency included committee membership (85.6%); participation in institutional planning processes (81.6%); institutional support for professional activities (77.6%); leadership opportunities (72.8%); flexible leaves of absence (71.2%); opportunities for community service (70.4%); opportunities and facilities for physical exercise programs (70.4%); temporary leaves of absence (65.6%); and grants for research, travel, and innovations (65.6%). Activities offered on an institution-wide basis which ranked lowest in frequency were the mentoring system (8.8%); growth contracts (11.2%); analysis of in-class video tapes (12.8%); networking opportunities with faculty in other institutions (20.8%); the use of an internal consultant (21.6%); support groups (22.4%); and workshops on career development (23.2%). Forty percent of the institutions indicated that they offer 20 or more of the 45 activities listed in the questionnaire.

For the most part, participation in those activities which promote faculty development were voluntary, as shown by an analysis of question 22. The mean number of voluntary activities reported for all institutions was 16.14, and the mean number of required activities was 3.55. Reporting the activities one by one shows that evaluations by students for promotion decisions are required by 54.4% of the sample institutions and voluntary in 9.6% of the sample; evaluations by students for formative purposes are required by 29.6% of the institutions and voluntary in 27.2% of the institutions. Self-assessment is required in 40% of the institutions and voluntary in 24.8%. Committee membership is required in 63.2% of the sample and voluntary in 22.4%, participation in institutional planning is required in 34.4% of sample institutions and voluntary in 48.8%, and workshops on professional development are required in 23.2% of the sample and voluntary in 42.4%. Leadership roles such as serving as committee chair or as department chair are required in 22.4% of the sample institutions and voluntary in 59.2% of the sample. Table B-4 in Appendix B shows the number and percentage of sample institutions offering each activity on a voluntary or required basis.

Further analysis of question 22 showed that the mean score of faculty involvement in the design of programs and activities across all respondent institutions was 3.25. On this scale "Very Little" involvement had the value 1 and "Very Much" involvement had the value 5. The mean score of faculty participation in the programs themselves across all respondent institutions was 3.04. Again, the value 1 was assigned for "Very Little" participation and the value 5 for "Very Much"

participation. Table B-5 in Appendix B gives the mean scores of faculty involvement in the design of each activity and the mean scores of faculty participation in each activity across all sample institutions.

A further examination of faculty involvement in the design of activities and faculty participation in activities considered the proportion of institutions that rated this participation on the 1 to 5 scale at the level of 3.5 or higher. Of the sample institutions, 37.6% had mean scores equal to or greater than 3.5 for involvement of faculty in design and 16.0% of the sample had mean scores equal to or greater than 3.5 for participation of faculty in these activities.

Policy statements. Institutions were asked to describe or send copies of their policy statements regarding faculty development and retirement.

It was noted above that 31 (24.8%) of the sample institutions stated that they have a written policy on faculty development. Fourteen of the 31 institutions either sent a copy of their policies or wrote briefly about them. These written policies included statements regarding sabbaticals; leaves of absence; faculty development committees; tenure; opportunities for professional development, travel, and creative projects; financial support for attendance at professional meetings; faculty evaluation; systematic performance review; merit bonuses; and, in one case, funds allocated for middle-aged and older faculty members.

Three institutions sent policies which went beyond listings of activities, awards, and opportunities for faculty development to include strong statements of institutional commitment to faculty development in a systematic fashion. One institution is "committed to the fullest possible development of the faculty for the benefit of the faculty members as well as the increasingly satisfactory fulfillment of the college's purpose." Another institution stated that the college is "committed to the principle of continuous faculty improvement."

One institution which had indicated that it had no written policy on faculty development at the same time forwarded documents to the writer in which there was a description of a program and a statement of institutional commitment to a "systematic and comprehensive program for faculty development" with a specified endowment fund "for the purpose of creating a comprehensive and integrated program of faculty development." Therefore, there is an inconsistency between the response to the questionnaire item on faculty development policy and the document provided. This could mean a misinterpretation of the question or a misplaced response on the questionnaire.

Several colleges are in the process of revising their policy statements. One institution stated that its faculty has given up tenure in favor of an annual contract issued by the institution to the faculty member "to allow 'new blood' to take over unsatisfactory and uninterested teaching by older faculty should this become prevalent."

Regarding retirement policies, 82 of the 106 institutions that have a retirement policy described them briefly. Retirement age ranges from 65 to 70 with most institutions having an annual review of the individual after the age of 65, some after 70. Twenty-seven institutions have retirement age at 70, 16 institutions at 65 years of age. Pension plans are most often with the Teachers Insurance and Annuity Association (TIAA) and/or the College Retirement Equities Fund (CREF). Some church-related colleges have church-sponsored pension plans or a combination of Social Security with the church-sponsored plans. Contributions are usually 5% of the individual's gross annual salary given by both the institution and the individual. Eligibility is age-related and experience-related.

Summary of Faculty Development Programs in the Sample Institutions

In sum, the four-year colleges in the sample appear to be engaged in faculty development efforts. These efforts, though not based in theory, are in many cases under the centralized responsibility of an official responsible on a part-time basis for faculty development. There is some evidence that efforts are reinforced by line-item budgets, and in a limited number of cases, institutionalized in policy statements.

There is also some evidence that about half the sample institutions recognize the need to address the developmental needs of middle-aged and older faculty members. More will be said about this in the next section.

Institutions that Address Middle-age and Old-age Developmental Needs vs. Institutions that Do Not Address These Needs

This researcher defined a new variable, named "Institutional Concern," as a measure of institutional attempts to address the developmental needs of middle-aged and older faculty. This variable was constructed by combining question 14 ("Are the developmental needs of middle-aged and older faculty considered to be an important issue by the governing board/administration of your institution?"), question 15 ("Does your institution address the developmental needs of middle-aged and older faculty in its faculty development policy?"), question 16 ("Does your institution address the developmental needs of middle-aged and older faculty in its faculty development programs?"), and question 18 ("If you answered NO to question 16, does your institution have plans to address this issue . . . in the future?"). The variable was defined as having two levels; level one indicates that the institution answered "Yes" to at least one of the above questions and level two indicates that the institution answered "No" to all of these questions. The total number of "Yes" responses to the constructed variable was 64 (51.2%); of "No" responses, 36 (28.8%); of missing data 25 (20.0%). A value was missing if the respondent did not answer any of the questions 14, 15, 16, or 18.

Differences Between Groups on Selected Attributes of the Model.

The purpose of constructing this variable, "Institutional Concern," was to compare institutions that are addressing the needs of middle-aged and older faculty with those that are not addressing these needs. The responses of each group to the questionnaire items were compared to see whether the two groups of institutions differed on key components of the model. Sorting the cases according to the two levels of this variable and analyzing the responses to all the questionnaire items on this basis revealed differences between the two groups on key components of the model as represented by the questionnaire items. The results of the analyses are reported in Table 7.

As illustrated in Table 7, more of those institutions that indicated they are doing something to address the needs of middle-aged and older faculty than those which indicated they are not addressing this issue have a formal institution-wide program (62.5% vs. 52.8%), an official responsible for the faculty development program (73.4% vs. 58.3%), a written policy on faculty development (34.4% vs. 19.4%), an internal consultant for faculty development (25.0% vs. 16.7%), a systematic evaluation of the faculty development program (45.4% vs. 25.0%), and a retirement policy (93.8% vs. 86.1%). There is only a slight difference between the two groups with respect to theory-based faculty development programs; 12.5% of the "Yes" group have theory-based programs and 11.1% of the "No" group have them. Likewise, slightly more of the "No" group (88.9%) than the "Yes" group (84.4%) do not use theory as the basis of their faculty development programs.

However, these statistics are based on a total of 12 of the 13 institutions in the sample that indicated they use a theory-based program and 86 of the 102 institutions that indicated they use no theory as the basis of their faculty development program.

Regarding finances, the median score is reported because the range of dollar amounts reported is so great (see, for example, Figure 4). Those sample institutions that indicated they are addressing the developmental needs have a higher median total expenditure budgeted for faculty development ($20,000) than those that indicated they are not addressing the issue ($9,500). However, the caution regarding reliability of dollar amounts cited earlier in this chapter is repeated here.

The two groups of institutions were compared on a second set of variables. These included the number of total activities and the number of voluntary activities offered by the institution, the rate of faculty involvement in designing the activities, the rate of faculty participation in the activities, and the dollar amounts and percentages budgeted.

Table 8 shows the mean scores and standard deviations on these variables for each group. The mean score for institutions addressing the developmental needs of middle-aged and older faculty were higher on each variable than the mean scores of institutions not addressing these needs. However, the standard deviations were large for each mean, and the discrepancy between the numbers of institutions in the two groups was large.

Table 7

Selected Attributes as a Function of Institutional Attention to the Needs of Middle-aged and Older Faculty Members

	Institutional concern			
	Yes[a]		No[b]	
Selected Attributes	N	%	N	%
Nature of program				
Formal, institution-wide	40	62.5	19	52.8
Formal, in units	7	10.9	2	5.6
Informal	15	23.4	14	38.9
Missing data	2	3.1	1	2.8
Official responsible for faculty development				
Yes	47	73.4	21	58.3
No	2	3.1	2	5.6
Committee	2	3.1	1	2.8
Missing data	13	20.3	12	33.3
Evaluation of program[c]				
Systematic	29	45.4	9	25.0
Non-systematic	37	57.8	23	63.8
No evaluation	2	3.1	4	11.1
Retirement Policy				
Yes	60	93.8	31	86.1
No	4	6.2	5	13.9
Written policy for faculty development				
Yes	22	34.4	7	19.4
No	40	62.5	28	77.8
Missing data	2	3.1	1	2.8
Theory-based program				
Yes	8	12.5	4	11.1
No	54	84.4	32	88.9
Missing data	2	3.1	0	0
Internal consultant				
Institution-wide	16	25.0	6	16.7
In units	4	6.3	3	8.3
Not present	42	65.6	26	72.2
Missing data	2	3.1	1	2.8

[a]N = 64. [b]N = 36. [c]Respondents could check more than one response among seven choices, collapsed here into three variables; therefore, the total does not equal 100%.

Table 8

Mean Scores on Selected Variables as a Function of Meeting the Developmental Needs of Middle-aged and Older Faculty Members

Variables	N	$\bar{X}$	SD
Activities, total number			
Yes group	64	20.05	7.73
No group	36	16.69	7.01
Number of Voluntary activities			
Yes group	64	18.44	7.85
No group	36	15.83	6.85
Faculty design			
Yes group	61	3.33[a]	0.75
No group	35	3.12[a]	0.86
Faculty participation			
Yes group	58	3.13[a]	0.56
No group	35	2.97[a]	0.55
Amount budgeted			
Yes group	42	$37,039	$43,174
No group	20	$23,407	$38,157
% of budget			
Yes group	32	0.86	1.22
No group	14	0.74	0.80

[a]Computed on a scale of 1 to 5, with 1 representing Very Little and 5 representing Very Much.

Characteristics of Faculty Development Programs in Public vs. Private Institutions

The institutions were categorized according to whether they were public or private, and then compared on each questionnaire item.

There were 166 institutions in the population; 18 (10.8%) are public; 148 (89.2%) are private. Of the 125 respondents to the questionnaire, 12 (9.6%) are public, and 113 (90.4%) are private. As indicated by the percentages, there is a strong similarity between the proportions of public and private institutions in the respondent group and the proportions of public and private institutions in the population.

Demographic Statistics.

Table 9 reports demographic characteristics for public and private institutions in the sample. Of the private institutions, 77.9% are denominational. The average enrollment for public institutions is 1677.3 FTE students, and for private institutions, 957.5 FTE students. The number of full-time tenured faculty is about the same for both public and private institutions, averaging 49.56. Table B-6 in Appendix B shows the mean number of faculty by age, rank, and sex for public institutions. Table B-7 in Appendix B shows the same data for private institutions.

General Characteristics.

A complete listing of summary responses by public institutions and by private institutions to questionnaire items 3 - 16, and items 18, 20, and 23 is included in Table B-8 in Appendix B.

Table 10 compares public and private institutions on the presence or absence of selected key attributes of the faculty development model. These attributes are measured by responses to questionnaire items 3, 4, 8, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 18, and 23. The discussion which follows refers to information reported in either Table 10, or in Table B-8 in Appendix B.

Table 9

Demographic Characteristics of Public and Private Institutions

	Institutional type			
	Public		Private	
Characteristic	N	%	N	%
Affiliation[a]				
Denominational	-	-	88	77.9
Non-denominational	-	-	18	14.4
Gender restriction				
Coeducational	10	83.3	94	83.2
Single-sex--male	1	8.3	5	4.4
Single-sex--female	-	-	10	8.8
On-campus residence status				
Boarding only	-	-	4	3.5
Commuting only	4	33.3	1	0.9
Boarding & Commuting	6	50.0	81	71.7

Note. The dash indicates that data are not applicable. [a]Not all private institutions marked this item.

Table 10

Characteristics of Public and Private Institutions on Selected Attributes of the Faculty Development Model

	Institutional type			
	Public		Private	
Selected attributes	N	%	N	%
Nature of program				
Formal, institution-wide	3	25.0	64	56.6
Formal, in academic units	0	0	10	8.8
Informal program	7	58.3	28	24.8
Missing data	2	16.7	11	9.7
Official responsible for faculty development				
Yes	6	50.0	71	62.8
No	0	0	4	3.5
Committee	0	0	3	2.7
Missing data	6	50.0	35	31.0
Emphasis of Program				
Matching program with individual needs	7	58.3	48	42.5
Matching program with institutional needs	2	16.7	34	30.1
Both	1	8.3	20	17.7
Missing data	2	16.7	11	9.7
Written policy				
Yes	2	16.7	29	25.7
No	9	75.0	71	62.8
Missing data	1	8.3	13	11.5
Evaluation of program[a]				
Systematic	4	33.3	38	33.7
Non-systematic	5	41.7	63	55.8
No evaluation	2	16.7	6	5.3
Rewards for participation[b]				
Economic	5	41.7	76	67.3
Non-economic	9	75.0	77	68.1
No reward	1	8.3	7	6.2

(table continues)

Selected attributes	Public N	Public %	Private N	Private %
Theory-based program				
Yes	3	25.0	10	8.8
No	7	58.3	95	84.1
Missing data	2	16.7	8	7.0
Address needs of middle-aged and older faculty				
Yes	5	41.7	59	52.2
No	4	33.3	32	28.3
Missing data	3	25.0	22	19.5
Line-item in budget				
Yes	4	33.3	58	51.3
No	7	58.3	46	40.7
Missing data	1	8.3	9	8.0

[a]Respondents could check more than one response among seven choices, collapsed here into three variables; therefore, a total equal to 100% does not apply. [b]Respondents could check more than one response; therefore, percentages total more than 100%.

Private institutions (56.6%) are more likely than public institutions (25.0%) to have formal, institution-wide faculty development programs, while public institutions (58.3%) are more likely than private ones (24.8%) to have an informal program. More of the private institutions (62.8%) than public ones (50.0%) designate an official to be responsible for faculty development. While both public and private colleges use the same means to communicate information about faculty development activities to their faculty members, more public than private institutions use departmental meetings (66.7% of the public, 50.4% of the private) and orientation programs (66.7% of the

public, 58.4% of the private); and more private than public institutions use faculty meetings (80.5% of the private, 66.7% of the public), interviews (26.5% of the private, 8.3% of the public), faculty handbooks (68.1% of the private, 33.3% of the public) and bulletin boards (31.9% of the private, 16.7% of the public). The predominant emphasis in faculty development in both public and private institutions is matching the program with individual needs (58.3% of the public, 42.5% of the private). Twice as many private colleges (17.7%) as public institutions (8.3%) indicated they emphasize matching the faculty development program with both individual and institutional needs, where the total sample number emphasizing both individual and institutional needs was 21.

A large proportion of both public and private institutions use professional development as their approach to faculty development (91.7% of the public ones, 85.8% of the private). More private colleges than public ones use instructional improvement (71.7% of the private, 58.3% of the public), personal development (48.7% of the private, 33.3% of the public), organization development (20.4% of the private, 16.7% of the public), and general improvement of the quality of life (16.8% of the private, 8.3% of the public) as approaches to faculty development. The approaches used least by both public and private institutions are organization development (16.7% of the public, 20.4% of the private) and general improvement of the quality of life (8.3% of the public, 16.3% of the private). Private institutions (25.7%) are more likely than public ones (16.7%) to have written policy statements on faculty development. Conversely, public institutions (75.0%) are more likely than private

ones (62.8%) not to have written policy statements on faculty development. Systematic evaluation of faculty development programs seems to be lacking in both public (33.3%) and private (33.7%) institutions. Thirty-three percent of the public institutions reported having a line-item for faculty development in the institutional budget; 51.3% of the private institutions reported having one.

More of the private colleges (67.3%) give economic rewards to faculty for participation in faculty development than do public ones (41.7%), while slightly more of the public institutions (75.0%) give noneconomic rewards than do the private ones (68.1%).

More private (52.2%) than public (41.7%) institutions reported that they are either aware of, addressing, or planning to address the issue of developmental needs of middle-aged or older faculty members. Likewise, slightly more public (33.3%) than private (28.3%) institutions indicated they are doing nothing regarding this issue.

The total sample number of institutions which stated they used one or more theories as the basis for faculty development programs was 13. More public than private institutions base their faculty development programs in adult development theories (8.3% or one public institution, 1.8% or two private institutions) and in organization development theories (16.7% or two public institutions, 4.4% or five private institutions). No public institutions indicated that they used systems theory or motivation theories; two (1.8%) of the private institutions indicated the use of systems theory and eight (7.1%) of the private institutions indicated the use of motivation theories. Two observations

should be made here: first, there are a small number of public institutions in the sample (N = 12) compared with the number of private ones (N = 113); second, the total number of institutions that have theory-based programs is very small (N = 13). Therefore, even though it is reported that 8.3% of the public institutions reported using adult development theories, that percentage represents only one institution, whereas 1.8% of the private institutions using adult development theories represents two institutions. It is very difficult to draw conclusions from these facts except that only a very few institutions in the sample use adult development theories in their faculty development programs.

Public and private institutions were compared on a second set of variables. These included the number of total activities and the number of voluntary activities offered by the institution, the rate of faculty involvement in designing the activities, the rate of faculty participation in the activities, and the dollar amounts and percentages budgeted.

Table 11 shows the mean scores and standard deviations for each type of institution on these variables. For purposes of description, these differences are noted: public institutions had slightly higher mean scores than private ones on the number of activities offered throughout the institution for faculty development ($\bar{X}$ = 18.17 public; $\bar{X}$ = 17.28 private) and on the total amount of money budgeted for faculty development ($\bar{X}$ = \$42,002 public; $\bar{X}$ = \$34,254 private). Public institutions had substantially higher mean scores than private ones on

the number of activities that are voluntary ($\bar{X}$ = 20.17 public; $\bar{X}$ = 15.72 private). Private institutions had slightly higher mean scores than public institutions on faculty participation in the design of activities ($\bar{X}$ = 3.27 private; $\bar{X}$ = 3.11 public) and on faculty participation in the activities ($\bar{X}$ = 3.08 private; $\bar{X}$ = 2.70 public). Private institutions had substantially higher mean scores than public institutions on the percentage of the institutional budget allocated to faculty development ($\bar{X}$ = 0.88% private, $\bar{X}$ = 0.51% public).

Table 11

Mean Scores of Public and Private Institutions on Selected Attributes of the Faculty Development Model

Variables	N	$\bar{X}$	SD
Activities, total			
Public	12	18.17	10.96
Private	113	17.28	8.64
Voluntary activities			
Public	12	20.17	9.96
Private	113	15.72	8.30
Faculty design			
Public	11	3.11[a]	0.81
Private	99	3.27[a]	0.81
Faculty participation			
Public	11	2.70[a]	0.70
Private	95	3.08[a]	0.55
Amount budgeted			
Public	7	$42,002	$53,980
Private	59	$34,254	$46,627
% of budget			
Public	4	0.51	0.57
Private	44	0.88	1.12

[a]Computed on a scale of 1 (Very Little) to 5 (Very Much).

The differences in statistics on dollar amounts and percentages of budget devoted to faculty development are probably explained by the fact that the public institutions are larger, have larger institutional budgets, and therefore have more money available for faculty development. However, the private institutions' smaller dollar amounts for faculty development represent a higher proportion of the total institutional budget which is also smaller than those in public institutions.

In sum, the data suggest that private institutions in the sample seem to have a greater awareness than public institutions of the need to address the issue of faculty development needs and seem to possess more of the premises, characteristics, and elements of the postulated faculty development model in their development programs for the entire faculty. Publicly owned schools have more money to spend on faculty development, and they offer more activities than private institutions. However, the money allocations reported by private institutions represent a higher percentage of their total institutional budget, and more private institutions than public ones have a line-item for faculty development in their institutional budgets.

Two observations should be made: first, there is a wide discrepancy between the numbers of public and private institutions observed; and, second, it is not possible to tell from the responses whether the budgetary amounts and percentages were estimated or reported exactly, so all these data were treated as estimations. Therefore, though the comparisons of public and private institutions are based on

the available descriptive evidence, interpretations should be made with caution.

Relationship between Model Components

The researcher wanted to determine whether there were patterns of relationship between key components of the faculty development model. During the coding of responses, it was observed informally that an institution having one of the key components of the model was likely to have other key components. To examine this observation, the researcher sorted the cases according to the presence or absence of a budget for faculty development and compared the frequencies of the two groups of institutions on each questionnaire item directly related to faculty development (questionnaire items 3 through 25).

Having found observable differences between the two groups, the researcher then sorted the cases according to the presence or absence of other key variables and compared the frequencies of the two groups of institutions (those having the variable and those not having the variable) on the questionnaire items identified above. The other key variables selected for the sort were a written policy for faculty development, a formal, institution-wide program for faculty development, an official responsible for this program, institutional concern for addressing the developmental needs of middle-aged and older faculty, and a theory-based program for faculty development. Phi coefficients were computed to describe the relationship between the key variables identified above and six other variables. These coefficients were computed to describe the relationship between the key variables

identified above and six other variables. These coefficients were computed from the responses to questionnaire items 3, 4, 10, 11, 13, 14, 15, 18, 22, and 23. Table 12 presents a matrix of phi coefficients for the relationships of key components of the model.

As seen in Table 12, the highest correlations were found between the presence of 20 or more different faculty development activities throughout the institution and the presence of 20 or more different faculty development activities in which faculty participation is voluntary (phi coefficient = 0.57751). This is a reasonable relationship, partly because the institutions reporting at least 20 different faculty development activities would be the only ones eligible to fulfill the "20 or more" dimension of the variable "20 or more activities in which faculty participation is voluntary."

The second highest correlation was found between faculty involvement in the design of faculty development activities and faculty participation in the activities (phi coefficient = 0.45346). This, also, is a reasonable relationship, since faculty should be more likely to take part in faculty development activities which they designed themselves. The high correlation might also be partially explained by the respondents' natural tendency to rate similarly the same activities on design involvement and on faculty participation, particularly since the ratings were in columns side by side.

Table 12

Phi coefficients of sample institutions on key components of the model.

	Rewards	Official	Budget	Formal institution-wide	Policy	Systematic evaluation	Institutional concern	Theory	Total activities > 20	Voluntary activities > 20	Faculty design	Faculty participation
Rewards	-	0.10538	0.09257	0.06075	0.11618	0.04425	0.13080	0.09449	0.10697	0.07421	0.00636	0.06367
Official		-	0.07648	0.12006	0.03878	0.07313	0.07468	0.11386	0.02159	0.01463	0.06441	0.16057
Budget			-	0.11180	0.21771	0.12440	0.20210	0.21690	0.12638	0.01292	0.18375	0.14400
Formal institution-wide				-	0.05956	0.11510	0.10065	0.06898	0.10643	0.07873	0.08764	0.27624
Policy					-	0.22239	0.16243	0.09013	0.01643	0.08281	0.18068	0.00614
Systematic evaluation						-	0.13363	0.22646	0.13776	0.30763	0.10593	0.13994
Institutional concern							-	0.02636	0.14644	0.17187	0.10089	0.08027
Theory								-	0.08113	0.13561	0.08845	0.03689
Total activities > 20									-	0.57751	0.12936	0.06426
Voluntary activities > 20										-	0.05632	0.03208
Faculty design											-	0.45346
Faculty participation												-

The next highest correlations were between systematic evaluation of the faculty development program and the presence of 20 or more different faculty development activities in which faculty participation is voluntary (phi coefficient = 0.30763); a formal, institution-wide program of faculty development and faculty participation in faculty development activities (phi coefficient = 0.27624); systematic evaluation of faculty development program and a theory-based program (phi coefficient = 0.22646); systematic evaluation of faculty development program and the presence of a written policy on faculty development (phi coefficient = 0.22239); a line-item budget and a written policy on faculty development (phi coefficient = 0.21771); a line-item budget and a theory-based program on faculty development (phi coefficient = 0.21690) and a line-item budget on faculty development and awareness of and active concern for the developmental needs of middle-aged and older faculty (phi coefficient = 0.20210).

The component of the model that had the strongest relationships with more variables than any other component tested was systematic evaluation of the faculty development program. The phi coefficient between systematic evaluation and the presence of 20 or more faculty development activities available on a voluntary basis was 0.30763; between systematic evaluation and the presence of a theory-based program on faculty development was 0.22646; between systematic evaluation and the presence of a written policy on faculty development was 0.22239; between systematic evaluation and the presence of 20 or more faculty development activities was 0.13776; and between systematic evaluation and a relatively high rate of faculty participation in faculty

development activities was 0.13994.

The component of the model that had the next strongest relationships with other variables tested was the presence of a budget for faculty development. The phi coefficient between the presence of a budget for faculty development and the presence of a written policy on faculty development was 0.21771; between the presence of a budget and concern for the developmental needs of middle-aged and older faculty was 0.20210; between a budget and the presence of a theory-based program on faculty development was 0.21690; between a budget and a relatively high rate of faculty involvement in the design of faculty development activities was 0.18375; and between a budget and a relatively high rate of faculty participation in the activities was 0.14400.

The relationships varied in strength, as indicated above, with some variables more highly related than others. The correlations noted seemed low; however, the interpretation of the phi coefficient for dichotomous data is different from that of the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (Glass & Stanley, 1970). In order for the phi coefficient to equal the value +1, both variables must have equal proportions of 1s. Because the proportions of 1s and 0s can differ widely, the maximum phi coefficient changes. One important observation is that all the coefficients are positive. Based on these correlations, it would seem that (a) institutions having systematic evaluation of the faculty development program are more likely to have the following components of the model than institutions having no systematic evaluation of the program: a budget for faculty development, a written

policy, a theory-based program, and voluntary participation in more than 20 faculty development activities; (b) institutions having a budget are more likely to have the following components than institutions with no budget for faculty development: a written policy for faculty development, concern for the developmental needs of middle-aged and older faculty, a theory-based program, a relatively high degree of faculty involvement in designing activities, and a relatively high degree of faculty participation in activities; (c) institutions with a written policy for faculty development are more likely than those without a written policy for faculty development to have these components of the model: a budget for faculty development, systematic evaluation of the faculty development program, concern for the developmental needs of middle-aged and older faculty, and a relatively high degree of faculty involvement in the design of faculty development activities; and (d) institutions reporting a concern for the developmental needs of middle-aged and older faculty are more likely to have these components of the model than those institutions reporting no such concern: a budget for faculty development, a written policy for faculty development, more than 20 different faculty development activities offered, and more than 20 such activities offered on a voluntary basis.

In sum, the matrix demonstrates that consistently, moderately strong relationships can be found among no more that three variables: a budget for faculty development, a written policy for faculty development, and concern for the developmental needs of middle-aged and older faculty. Therefore, it would seem that where one of these key

components of the model is found, the other two are more likely to exist. Although the variable of a theory-based program of faculty development appears to be strongly related to several other variables, it must be noted that the incidence of the theory-based programs is very small in the sample (N = 13).

Summary of Survey Findings

The questionnaire responses indicated that the four-year colleges responding to the survey and accredited by SACS are largely private, denominational, coeducational, and have both boarding and commuting students and an average enrollment of 969.3 FTE students. Most of the faculty are male, middle-aged, and have associate or full professorial rank. About half are tenured.

Faculty development programs are more likely to be formal than informal and have an official responsible for them on a part-time basis. Professional development and instructional improvement are the major foci of faculty development activities. Only one-fourth of these institutions have a written policy on faculty development, and about forty percent evaluate their programs systematically. Theory-based programs exist in only 13 institutions, but faculty are rewarded economically and noneconomically for participating in faculty development efforts in most institutions. About half the institutions report some concern for the developmental needs of middle-aged and older faculty and about half report having a line-item budget for faculty development. The median number of faculty development activities offered is 18.0. The median total dollar amount available for faculty

development is $15,000, with only 64 institutions reporting on that variable. On a scale of 1 to 5, with 1 being Very Little and 5 being Very Much, faculty members have a 3.25 or average rate of involvement in designing faculty development activities and a 3.04 or average rate of participation in the activities.

Institutions that reported that they address the developmental needs of middle-aged and older faculty are more likely than institutions that reported they do not address these needs to have a formal, institution-wide faculty development program, an official responsible for faculty development, a systematic evaluation of the faculty development program, a retirement policy, a written policy for faculty development, an internal consultant for faculty development, a higher total number of faculty development activities for which participation is voluntary, greater participation of faculty in the design of faculty development activities and in the activities, more money budgeted for faculty development, and a higher percentage of the institutional budget devoted to faculty development.

In a comparison of public with private institutions, a larger proportion of private institutions have more of the key components of the proposed faculty development model. Although public institutions budget more money for faculty development than private institutions, the money allocated for faculty development by private institutions represents a higher percentage of the institutional budget than in public institutions. These characteristics are described tentatively with the observation that the sample, although it highly resembled the

population in relation to the proportionate number of public and private institutions, included only 12 public institutions and 113 private institutions.

A pattern of positive relationships was found between major components of the faculty development model. The most consistently strong relationships were between a line-item budget for faculty development, a written policy for faculty development, and institutional concern for the developmental needs of middle-aged and older faculty.

Selection and Study of Model College

Selection of the Model College

As previously stated, one college was selected for in-depth study on the basis of responses to the questionnaire. Two institutions were identified for which the following components of the model were present: a faculty development program that is predominately formal and institution-wide; an official responsible for the program; a written, institutional policy on faculty development; 20 or more faculty development activities offered; 20 or more faculty development activities offered on a voluntary basis; a score of at least 3.5 (on a scale of 1 to 5) on faculty involvement in the design of faculty development activities; a budgetary line-item for faculty development; both economic and non-economic rewards for participation in faculty development activities; systematic evaluation of the faculty development program; and some indication that the institution is trying to address the developmental needs of middle-aged and older faculty.

The final criterion used to select the model institution was evidence of how and to what extent the college was addressing this issue and was based on items 14 to 19 of the questionnaire. The model college supplied evidence that the governing board/administration had begun to raise endowment funds for faculty development of senior faculty and had initiated a faculty development review of senior faculty every five years. The respondent also stated that the institution is reworking guidelines for faculty development for both middle-aged and older faculty and that the Director of Faculty Development is interviewing senior faculty about their needs. The other college under consideration, although it answered "Yes" to the question regarding governing board/administration concern for the developmental needs of middle-aged and older faculty, stated only that no limits are set on who can apply for assistance in development.

The college selected is a small, private, denominational, coeducational college; its students both board and commute. In comparison with other responding colleges, the model college had: a mean score equal to 3.61 on the involvement of faculty in the design of faculty development activities (the mean score for all institutions was 3.25); a mean score equal to 3.43 on faculty participation in the activities (the mean score for all institutions was 3.04); a total of 31 different faculty development activities available throughout the institution where the mean total for all institutions was 17.37; a total of 25 faculty development activities on a voluntary basis where the mean total for all institutions was 16.14; a total of $37,900 available for faculty development, where the median amount for all

institutions was $15,000 (with 64 institutions reporting dollar amounts).

One key component of the model described in Chapter III was not present at the college selected, namely, a theory-based faculty development program. Although the responses to the questionnaire indicated the absence of a theory-based program, the responses to questions specifically related to middle-aged and older faculty denote other strengths. While these do not substitute for a theory-based program, they do point to operational practices (e.g., interviews with senior faculty members to assess their needs) that evidence an institutional attitude which recognizes different needs at different age and career stages. This particular practice is an example of how to implement adult development theory. Therefore, although this college has no explicitly stated theory-based program, it does appear to operate on the basis of adult development theory.

On-site Visit

The in-depth study consisted of two on-site visits to interview the Director of Faculty Development. A copy of the interview schedule is included in Appendix C-1 and a copy of the edited responses taken from the transcription is included in Appendix C-2.

The sessions were audio-taped. The interviewer listened to the tapes, transcribed them, read the relevant documents, and organized the information from both sources into the following outline: a description of the position of the Director of Faculty Development and its origin;

a description of problems experienced and attitudes and behaviors exhibited by middle-aged and older faculty; the institutional strategies intended to address these problems, behaviors, and attitudes; projected needs; success of the program as perceived by the Director; observations about the roles of the Academic Dean and the Director of Faculty Development with respect to their responsibilities for faculty development; and summary comments on how the institution's faculty development program compares with the model proposed in Chapter Three.

The Director's answers to the semi-structured interview and the review of relevant documents formed the basis for the following analysis. It is essentially the Director's objective, but singular view of faculty development at this college.

The position of Director of Faculty Development is two-thirds of a full-time faculty appointment and was created to administer a Faculty Development Center funded by a private foundation grant. The Director has "no role in advising for tenure, promotion, and salary," according to the job description. The focus of the Center is to improve instruction through providing assistance to the faculty in the teaching process and in course design. Decisions regarding the Center are made by a Council composed of the Director, the Academic Dean, three faculty members, and ex-officio development associates. The development associates are respected faculty members with significant expertise in the teaching process, appointed by the Council to work with other faculty members.

The concept of the Faculty Development Center led by a Director was initiated by the administration to insure that money for faculty development would be well spent, to provide someone to whom the faculty could go to for guidance after a performance evaluation, and to provide faculty development activities related to teaching that would challenge faculty members constructively rather than treat them remedially.

One issue which arose in the discussion of problems that middle-aged and older faculty members deal with at this institution was related to the interdisciplinary curriculum. The college has had an interdisciplinary curriculum for freshmen for about 15 years and more recently an interdisciplinary curriculum for seniors. Faculty members who were involved in this curriculum as younger faculty are now either middle-aged or older. The Director feels that, not having as much energy as they did when they were younger, they now have a sense that the college administration has not given them credit (economic or non-economic) for past contributions, does not understand the personal cost, but just wants to know "What can you do for the future?"

Another result of the interdisciplinary program is that the faculty who have been involved in it for 10 or 15 years have become generalists, as opposed to being disciplinary specialists. The costs of that trend are various. According to the Director, the faculty are somewhat alienated from their colleagues and therefore experience loneliness even while they are a part of the interdisciplinary group effort. Furthermore, it is difficult, if not impossible, to find journals in which generalists such as these faculty can publish. In addition, self-

concept is influenced as reflected in the following questions: "What have I accomplished in my field? What scholarly contribution have I made to academe? Will I ever make a scholarly contribution?" These questions indicate an uncertainty about one's scholarly functions that overflows into an insecurity about one's self-worth.

Middle-aged faculty members have a sense of "nowhere else to go." They have been teaching for 15 or more years, perhaps most of these years--if not all of them--at this institution, and question their ability to get a position elsewhere at this age. This attitude is exacerbated by the college circumstance of having a large number of teachers whose spouses also work. This condition makes it more difficult to move and find employment for both. It is further complicated by the perceived administrative attitude: If people do not like working here (or any other place), they should move.

Behaviors exhibited in teaching situations by middle-aged and older faculty prompted the administration to address the issue of developmental needs of middle-aged and older faculty through the Faculty Development Center. The older faculty members who were weak teachers had become worse, a situation that adversely affected their self-esteem. The college adopted a voluntary evaluation system of senior faculty members in order to help them to address teaching problems; however, because it is voluntary, not all senior faculty members take advantage of it. Therefore, it is questionable how much the system has improved instruction by older faculty members.

A small number of senior faculty members were having a difficult time attracting enough students to justify offering some of their classes, they were getting frustrated, and they were having health problems. Some senior faculty members expressed a feeling of being "worn down" by the students of today, a feeling which prompted the conclusion: "There's something wrong with my teaching. I've done this for 15 years; it's always worked and it isn't working now." Adding to a sense of desperation experienced by older faculty members is the knowledge that, despite enormous support by one's colleagues, everyone knows everything about everybody else in a small college community. When the knowledge is something negative about colleagues, it contributes to existing negative feelings and poor self-concept.

In an effort to address the issues implied in these conditions and behaviors, the college used the services of the existing Faculty Development Center and its Director, who acts, at least in part, as an internal consultant on faculty development. Some of the activities designed to address these issues are (a) a statistical analysis of the number of faculty, students, courses, etc. in the interdisciplinary program; (b) interviews with the ten oldest faculty members who have taught more than 10 sections in the interdisciplinary program to hear their concerns about teaching; (c) an open forum for these same 10 faculty members to discuss their concerns about the interdisciplinary program with the President, the Academic Dean, and the Development Office staff; (d) a specific statement in the long-range plan, 1983-1990, for faculty development regarding "the differences of the faculty at different stages of their careers in teaching" with the needs of each

stage stated; particularly cited is the necessity for this college "to address the needs of [the senior faculty] in a more serious way and to develop new and appropriate strategies to achieve these goals"; and (e) an endowment program being designed specifically for senior faculty to support interdisciplinary efforts.

The Director sees a need to work on the stage immediately preceding retirement. Although a retired faculty member works informally with senior faculty, the Director feels there needs to be someone, a colleague, in addition to herself, to whom senior faculty can turn for consultation and support. Administrative turnover in the academic deanship has made it difficult to address the problems of senior faculty. In the Director's opinion it is also more expensive to have programs designed specifically for middle-aged and older faculty members because there are more needs.

With respect to the effect of the college's efforts, the Director believes that middle-aged and older faculty are aware that the college acknowledges and attempts to address their developmental needs. She bases this belief on interviews, casual conversations, and comparison with what she hears at inter-institutional group meetings. The Director believes that the most successful effort for middle-aged and older (probably for all) faculty members has been the use of faculty study groups. These are long-term intellectual discussion groups focusing on ongoing issues which have emerged from the interdisciplinary program and its effect on their teaching. Faculty members have learned to work together in a collegial setting and to be willing to say "I don't know"

in that setting. The Director measures the success of this activity informally: faculty members attend these study groups and talk about them as being positive experiences. There is no monetary reward connected with the activity. She estimates that about one-half the senior faculty members and one-half of all faculty members participate in these groups.

The Director perceives that the faculty understand that participation in the activities offered through the Faculty Development Center are offered for their own development. She communicates this purpose simply by not communicating anything else. All activities are designed for "people to learn and to enjoy learning, to foster a sense of development that is not tedious."

According to the Director, linking what the individual does with the goals of the institution is a problem because there is a reluctance on the part of the institution to make broad goals specific. Coupled with that reluctance is an institutional expectation that faculty should "do anything and everything." The nonspecificity of institutional goals and the expectation that faculty can be asked to do many different things make it difficult for individual faculty members to know exactly what their contribution is and how it relates to the institution's purpose. It is hard for individual faculty members to know whether their unique contribution is a significant part of something that has never been articulated. Nobody questions that he or she makes a significant contribution, but no one tells them often enough that they do make a difference, and they feel this lack of affirmation. The

Director based this particular perception on her own observation of faculty interactions and on what she hears faculty members say.

Coincident with the nonspecificity of goals and the variety of institutional expectations is the enormous freedom and flexibility allowed to faculty members. According to the Director, this freedom and flexibility contribute to an institutional state of health. She also described the institution as having a collegial setting and stated that faculty members do well who find sustenance in this collegial setting. Her belief is that there is a "real education mission here to which people have given themselves--you hear it when they are despondent and when they are elated."

A significant factor, a major dynamic in the faculty development program, according to the Director, is trust, trust in her performance and in the concern of the institution for faculty development.

It needs to be noted again that the purpose of the Faculty Development Center and the responsibility of its Director is to improve instruction. Professional development and enhancement of scholarship are the responsibility of the Academic Dean. Decisions about leaves of absence, attendance at professional meetings, and awards for research not directly related to teaching are made by the Academic Dean. The Academic Dean and the Director of Faculty Development meet twice a month to discuss faculty development, and the Director considers that their working relationship is good and productive for faculty development. They have "compatible differences" and teach each other a great deal.

When asked if she has experienced any tension as a result of being responsible only for the teaching aspect of faculty development and having someone else responsible for the other aspects, the Director responded that she has experienced no tension from this situation. Because teaching is so highly valued at this college and because she is confident of her knowledge, understandings, and skills in faculty development, she is comfortable with this arrangement.

Overall, the concept of faculty development at this college contains many of the characteristics, premises, and elements of the model. It certainly provides a framework for addressing the developmental needs of middle-aged and older faculty members as these affect their teaching performance.

The institution has taken great pains to separate the normative and formative aspects of faculty development by separating the two job responsibilities. It has also been careful to have faculty members making decisions about the administration of money directed for their own development. Procedures seem to implement what is explicitly stated in policies and actions taken by the governing board and administration. Evaluation of the faculty development program occurs every three years. There is a wide variety of activities provided for faculty development and a line-item budget as well as a funded grant.

There is strong evidence to indicate that this institution cares about persons in a growth-producing environment. Money, time, and professional expertise are spent in providing this environment. There is also indication that much of what happens depends on the leadership of the Director. In the opinion of this researcher, the Director knows the developmental needs of middle-aged and older faculty in that institution, articulates them well, has imagination and initiative in addressing them, and is confident in her own ability to pursue the means to address them through institutional and administrative channels. Furthermore, she appears to have the respect of the faculty and to experience credibility among them.

Although the instructional component is separated from the professional, personal, organization, and career aspects of faculty development, there appears to be no conflict for faculty members, according to the Director, given the cooperative relationship between the Director of Faculty Development and the Academic Dean. This arrangement is a departure from the faculty development model proposed in Chapter III. Two other major differences between this college's program and the model are the lack of a specifically stated theory on which the program is based and the lack of specific, institutional goal statements to link individual efforts with institutional objectives. Any alterations or revisions of the model suggested by these findings will be discussed in Chapter VI.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

The goal of this research study was to examine the role of the four-year college in addressing the developmental needs of faculty members during periods of middle-age and old-age transition. In this chapter, a summary of the study, the conclusions from the findings, the recommendations for further study, and final comments will be presented.

Summary

Purpose

The need for the study was established on the basis of statistical data which suggested that, by the year 2000, the modal age of tenured faculty in four-year colleges will be 56 - 65 and that the median age will be 49 in 1990. The basic question researched was: Given the rising median age of faculty, what can the four-year college do to keep existing faculty members in these two age groups renewed? To address the question, a model was developed based on theory and an extensive literature review and was tested by a survey of four-year colleges.

The Model

Principles were extracted from the review of literature and applied to designing a model for faculty development that would address the developmental needs of middle age and old age as an integral part of the total faculty development program. The keystone of the model was the interaction of the individual and the organization. The characteristics and elements of the model were based on assumptions (premises) about human beings and organizations, all of which were described in Chapter III.

The characteristics of the model faculty development program were (a) attention to individual developmental needs of faculty; (b) voluntary participation by faculty; (c) involvement of faculty in the design of faculty development program; (d) unique design of faculty development program for each institution; (e) constructive, as opposed to remedial, design of the program; (f) separation of the normative aspects of faculty development (i.e., those related to promotion decisions) from the formative aspects (i.e., those related to individual growth of the person); (g) evidence of administrative support for faculty development in institutional structures, policies, and procedures; (h) strong, sensitive, and consistent leadership of the program; (i) effective communication of the program to faculty members; (j) institutionalization and centralization of the program; (k) economic and non-economic rewards to faculty members for participation in the program; (l) efforts to link individual with institutional goals; (m) a collegial approach to faculty development efforts; (n)

existing and planned activities as part of the program; (o) provision of both individual and group activities for faculty development; (p) a systems approach to faculty development; and (q) theoretical basis for a faculty development program.

The elements of the model were both processes and activities. The processes involved a system of data-gathering; goal-matching; designing, implementing, and evaluating the program; giving feed-back; and allocating funds and time for the program.

The activities in the model fell into five categories: awards, grants, leaves, etc.; professional assessment and analysis; collegial activities; institutional activities; and miscellaneous activities.

Methodology

The methodology was described in Chapter IV. The sample population chosen was all four-year colleges which grant as their highest degree the bachelor's degree and which were accredited by SACS as of December, 1982.

The questionnaire items were derived from the model and related to it by means of a crosswalk technique. Questionnaires were field-tested and then sent to all 166 institutions to determine if any colleges had faculty development programs resembling the model, and, if so, to describe what they were doing and to determine the extent to which they were doing it. Data from the questionnaires and observations from an on-site visit to a selected model college were the two types of evidence examined.

Findings Summarized

Questionnaire

The results of the survey by questionnaire can be summarized as follows:

1. The characteristic four-year college in the sample is private, denominational, and coeducational, with both boarding and commuting students.

2. Most faculty members are male, middle-aged, and associate or full professors.

3. Fifty percent or more of the responding institutions reported having some key components of the model. However, fewer than half the institutions reported having the following key components in their faculty development programs: a written institutional policy on faculty development; a theory-based program of faculty development; an approach that matches the program with both individual and institutional needs; and a systematic evaluation of the faculty development program.

4. Activities traditionally associated with faculty development--e.g., institutional support for professional development, leaves of absence, and grants for research, travel, and innovation--were reported most frequently by institutions. More recently developed activities--e.g. the mentoring system, growth contracts, and re-training for career shifts--were reported least frequently. The mean number of different activities made available for faculty development was 17.37.

5. About half the institutions reported some concern regarding the developmental needs of middle-aged and older faculty. Institutions that reported such concern were more likely than those institutions not reporting such concern (a) to have key components of the proposed model and (b) to spend more money and have a higher percentage of the institutional budget for faculty development.

6. A larger proportion of private than public institutions had key components of the proposed faculty development model. Public institutions reported having more money available for faculty development, but private institutions reported allocating a higher percentage of the institutional budget for faculty development. Differences noted between public and private institutions were descriptive and were offered tentatively due to the small number of public institutions in proportion to private institutions.

7. Phi coefficients computed to measure the relationship between key variables were all positive. Consistently, moderately strong relationships existed among three variables: the presence of a written policy on faculty development, the presence of a line-item budget for faculty development, and institutional concern for the developmental needs of middle-aged and older faculty.

On-site Visit

A college was selected for the resemblance of its faculty development program to the proposed model. The results of the on-site visit were based on the interview with the Director of Faculty Development and the review of relevant institutional documents and can be summarized as follows:

1. The college has a Faculty Development Center with a Director of Faculty Development, who is a faculty member. The purpose of the program is to improve teaching constructively, as opposed to remedially. The program emphasizes a collegial approach to faculty development.

2. The problems of middle-aged and older faculty reported by the Director are strongly similar, if not identical to those described in the literature.

3. The institution has attempted to address these problems actively through the Center by such efforts as interviews with older faculty members; open forums for faculty to discuss their concerns; a specific, published statement regarding the developmental needs of faculty, particularly of senior faculty; and an endowment program being designed specifically for senior faculty.

4. The faculty development program departs from the proposed model in three significant ways: it is not based on an explicitly stated theory; the responsibility for faculty development is divided between the Director of Faculty Development, who is responsible for instructional improvement, and the Academic Dean, who is responsible for

professional and career development; the program does not explicitly provide the opportunity for individual faculty members to link their own personal, professional, and career goals with institutional goals.

Conclusions

The major conclusions of the study emerge from the analysis of the data which came from the questionnaire survey and the on-site visit of the selected model college.

Questionnaire

1. There is evidence that the four-year colleges studied are engaged in faculty development activities. The variation in content and degree is wide; however, some of the premises, characteristics, and elements of the model are present in those institutions that responded to the survey.

2. Although some things are being done about faculty development, few programs appear to be theory-based. Furthermore, only one-fourth of the sample institutions have a written policy for faculty development. Both of these facts lead one to question what is the basis for the faculty development program at those institutions with no written policy or theoretical basis. How does the institution evaluate its program if there is no written policy or theoretical basis? How do faculty members know what the institution uses to evaluate their professional growth, and how do they know themselves when and if they have grown as faculty members? Such bases are needed to link the various parts of the faculty development program and to help faculty members recognize the

contribution their professional and personal development makes to the institution.

3. There is very little money available on average at the institutions that answered the finance-related questions. No more than half the institutions responded to questions related to amounts of money allocated for faculty development. This lack of response could mean either that these institutions did not have the information accessible in the form requested or that there is no money available for faculty development.

4. The comments of those sample institutions which indicated they are aware of and actively concerned about addressing the needs of middle-aged and older faculty members point out that very little of substance is being done to address the needs of that group which is different from what is done for all other faculty members.

5. There is a moderate pattern of characteristics which suggests that if an institution possesses one of these three key components of the model: a budget for faculty development, a written policy on faculty development, and institutional concern for the developmental needs of middle-aged and older faculty--it is more likely to possess the other two key characteristics.

In sum, faculty development programs in the sample consist of various, distinct activities, events, and circumstances. There is very little in the data to indicate a systematic approach, based in theory, that would integrate all the institutional efforts to promote the total

development of faculty members--personal, professional, and career, or to link the faculty member's development with the institutional goals.

The model could be initiated as a program for faculty development in any of the sample institutions, given the institution's recognition of a need for such an approach to faculty development and commitment to making it succeed. Because the underlying principles of the model were taken from suggestions and theories found in the literature, it is reasonable to assume that the model is practicable. There is nothing startling or original in the model except for its organization. It is designed to provide direction for and to integrate all the activities of the institution related to faculty development.

On-site Visit

1. Information gathered from the on-site visit supports the need for institutions to address the developmental needs of middle-aged and older faculty. The problems associated with middle-age and old-age transition periods described in the literature are in evidence at the model college: ennui, doubts about one's contribution to scholarship, feelings of "nowhere else to go," frustrations with teaching, feelings of alienation from colleagues, and questioning of the institution's appreciation for one's contribution to the institution.

2. There are potentially both positive and negative effects from strong ties of colleagueship. The institution has capitalized on the positive effects by providing forums such as support groups for faculty development. Likewise, the institution has taken steps to alleviate the

negative effects, i.e., anxiety resulting from the fear of colleagues' negative judgments about one's professional performance, by providing an internal consultant to assist faculty members in their development and forums to provide opportunities for beleaguered faculty members to express their concerns.

3. The institution has put in place a system of assessing faculty development needs through interviews with senior faculty and open forums to discuss concerns about the interdisciplinary program with administrative officials.

4. The institutional policy on faculty development, as articulated especially in the Long Range Statement on Faculty Development, acknowledges the developmental nature of faculty members with respect to different career stages and different personal situations affecting their teaching responsibility and professional development. The institution has also proposed several actions that implement this policy, e.g., working for increased endowment for faculty development of the senior faculty.

5. The model college has effectively separated the normative and formative aspects of faculty development by having two persons responsible for faculty development: the Academic Dean and the Director of Faculty Development. The Academic Dean is responsible for everything related to professional and career development and to promotion decisions; the Director of Faculty Development is responsible for all faculty development activities directly related to improving teaching.

6. There is another result of this separation of the normative and formative aspects of faculty development by having two persons. The Academic Dean, besides being responsible for all promotion decisions, is also responsible for the professional and career development of the faculty member. He makes all decisions regarding money for travel to professional meetings, for sabbaticals, and for scholarly pursuits not directly related to improving teaching. Regarding personal development, as it relates to the professional development of the faculty member, the individual faculty member usually approaches the Academic Dean for any specific considerations needed, e.g., a temporary leave of absence. The Director of Faculty Development is actually responsible for the development of faculty members only as it relates directly to improving teaching. Where these dimensions overlap, decisions and consultation are dependent on the cooperative working relationship between the Academic Dean and the Director of Faculty Development. This is different from the model described in Chapter III, which calls for an integrated approach to faculty development under the direction of one official, e.g., a Director.

7. A major component of the model that is lacking at the selected college is the linking of individual goals with the institutional goals.

8. Another major component of the model missing from the selected model college is a stated theory-based approach to faculty development. Although the present Director is operationally theory-based in her approach to faculty development, especially with regard to adult development theories, there is no written statement of commitment to any

particular theories.

In sum, the model college has addressed the developmental needs of middle-aged and older faculty members during transition times within the framework of an existing faculty development program for all faculty members. It has done this essentially by adopting an attitude, verbalized on paper and actualized in specific actions, of recognizing the developmental nature of faculty members as they move through age and career stages. This approach is highly consistent with the model.

Discussion: Reinforcements/Alterations to the Model

The findings and conclusions from both the survey and the on-site visit of the model college reinforce the structure of the model. Both the questionnaire results and the on-site visit produced evidence that middle-age and old-age developmental needs can be addressed within the context of the institutional program for faculty development. Both suggest that institutions are looking for ways to identify and address these needs. The model proposed in Chapter III provides a way to address them within the context of the total faculty development program provided by an institution.

According to the Director of Faculty Development at the model college, efforts being made to address the developmental needs at the model college of middle-aged and older faculty members are successful. This potential for success, while dependent on many factors and not necessarily predictive of success on other campuses, does at least suggest that similar efforts are worth investigation by other colleges.

The on-site visit suggested a major departure from the model: the division of the responsibility for faculty development into two positions, the Academic Dean and the Director of Faculty Development. Although this division effectively implements one of the characteristics of the model, the separation of the normative and formative aspects of faculty development, it potentially violates another characteristic of the model, an open systems approach to faculty development which integrates professional development, instructional improvement, personal development, career development, and organization development. The writer chooses to remain with the model by having one person responsible for the whole of faculty development and suggests another way to separate the normative and formative aspects.

That way is to designate the Director of Faculty Development as responsible for directing the faculty development program and coordinating all the activities which promote the areas of development mentioned above and to designate the Academic Dean as responsible for promotion decisions. An example of this implementation would be growth contracts. The Director of Faculty Development would be responsible for helping faculty members to identify the areas of growth to be addressed and for consulting with the faculty member on how to improve in these areas. The Academic Dean would be responsible for confirming the terms of the contract, for evaluating the growth accomplished, and for deciding on the appropriate reward for the growth. In the event of a negative evaluation, the Director would be responsible for helping the faculty member to assess the situation and to learn from mistakes made.

Although neither the questionnaire results nor the results of the on-site visit to the model college indicated acceptable alterations to the model, the information from the on-site visit, in addition to reinforcing the need and the structure for the model, demonstrated several implementation methods for specific characteristics and elements of the model. For example, the committee structure that administers the endowment funds for improving teaching, the use of Faculty Development Associates to help other faculty members in activities related to teaching, the use of interviews to determine needs, the use of study groups focused on issues arising from interdisciplinary courses, and the development of a long-range plan for faculty development are concrete methods of one or several of the following characteristics or elements of the model: individualization of the program, faculty involvement in designing the program, constructive rationale, administrative support, strong leadership, collegiality, the use of existing and planned activities, assessment of faculty needs, financing the program, study groups, the mentorship system, and planning processes for faculty development.

There is nothing in the literature or in the results of the survey or the on-site visit to suggest that the model described in Chapter III is not needed or would not work. There is evidence from both that the model is needed. The only way to determine if it would indeed promote faculty development and institutional well-being is to initiate programs and evaluate their impact on improving the quality of academic life at several sites by using pre-established evaluative criteria.

Based on the review of the literature, the questionnaire results, the in-depth study of one college that is addressing the developmental needs of middle-aged and older faculty, and the analysis and interpretation of the information from these three sources, the writer would suggest that there are four goals to be met in order for the model to work. One is an input goal, two are process goals, and the third is an outcome goal.

The input goal is money. There must be some money effectively allocated and managed for faculty development in order for a program to exist. The institution spends money on those things which are necessary and on those which it values. In times of financial constraints, money is reduced or eliminated for those things that the institutions feels are least necessary. If no money is made available for faculty development, the institution is saying that faculty development is a "least necessary" function. If some money is made available, the institution is saying that faculty development matters. The decision regarding the amount of money to be allocated for faculty development should be made by administrators after consultation with faculty members regarding how to spend the money. In this way, both the financial constraints of the institution and the developmental needs of the faculty are attended.

The first process goal is leadership. None of the premises or characteristics would have an opportunity to be tried without strong, sensitive, effective leadership. All the activities listed in the model could be offered, but without direction, the faculty development

activities would fall short of being an integral part of a program. It is leadership that would link institutional commitment to faculty development and faculty commitment to institutional development.

The second process goal is ritual. A ritual is any formal and customarily repeated act or series of acts. Higher education has many rituals, time-honored and protective of academia. These rituals are supposed to ceremonialize existing realities, thereby expressing and celebrating these realities in a manner that causes participants to realize the significance of what exists. Rituals could be established that would express the importance of the development of faculty members. For example, the reward system for participation in faculty development could become ritualized through the use of symbols to designate the connection between involvement in a given activity and the reward given to the faculty member for that participation. Such a symbol could be a letter from the college president to faculty members explicitly recognizing them for participation in stated activities, expressing the institution's awareness of the connection between such participation and faculty development, and acknowledging the effect of such development on the institution. Another example is that faculty participation in planning processes could be rewarded appropriately through explicitly stated institutional recognition leading to promotion decisions. One way to formalize this would be to state in a written policy that participation in planning processes is one of the institutional criteria for promotion decisions. It would seem that there are numerous faculty development activities and circumstances that go unrecognized simply because they have never been made explicit through the proper use of

symbols in rituals.

The output goal is meaning. From the description of problems confronted by middle-age and older faculty members (as well as other middle-aged and older persons), the paramount concern is loss of meaning in one's life. All institutional efforts to provide faculty development must consider institutional policies, processes, and procedures in light of the message they convey to faculty members. Likewise, they must consider the meaning of faculty members' contributions to the institution. Two forces seem to operate here: first, the institution's responsibility to provide its members with opportunities to assess both the institution's policies, processes, and procedures and their own professional and career goals; and second, the institution's responsibility to assure its members that their development and their contributions are essential to the institution's well-being.

These four goals--money, leadership, rituals, and meaning--if met, should make the model successfully contribute to faculty development. In the writer's opinion, one of these is the keystone of the model: leadership. Leadership makes all other components of the model possible. Lack of leadership defeats the effectiveness of all other components of the model.

Implications for Further Study

1. This study described a profile of the faculty development programs in southern four-year colleges as of Fall 1983. It would be instructive to do a follow-up study of the same population in September, 2000 to see if the profile has changed.

2. Studies already recommended in the literature and implied here because they are important to the advancement of faculty development should be made to identify further the correlation between adult stages of development and faculty career stages of development. Questions to be explored would include the effects of aging (biological, psychological, and social) on academics; the relationship between the characteristic behaviors, tasks, and attitudes of faculty at different career stages and the characteristic behaviors, tasks, and attitudes at different life stages; the relationship between satisfiers/ dissatisfiers and academic stages; and the differences between men and women faculty members at different career stages and life stages.

3. One important facet of faculty development was not examined in this study since the survey was confined solely to describing what is being done by four-year colleges in the southern United States to address the developmental needs of middle-aged and older faculty. That facet was the effectiveness of what is being done. The question "Are existing faculty development programs, where they do exist, adequate to address the developmental needs of middle-aged and older faculty?" was posed in Chapter I. It has not been answered. The survey results and, particularly, the in-depth study of the selected model college disclosed

institutional efforts to address the issue. However, even though the Director of Faculty Development at the selected college perceived that program as successful, this study did not systematically measure the effectiveness of any programs. A significant contribution to faculty development would be to define measures of effectiveness in addressing this issue and would include at least these five studies: (a) to determine scientifically and precisely the needs of middle-aged and older faculty members from their own experience in the institutional setting; (b) to determine from administrators what they believe to be measures of effective faculty development for middle-aged and older faculty; (c) to determine from students what they expect from faculty members regardless of age and identify these measures of effective teaching; (d) to do a follow-up study of the model college identified in this study using measures defined in (a), (b), and (c) above to determine the effectiveness of its faculty development program; and (e) to initiate the proposed model for faculty development in a given institution and then do a longitudinal study to measure its effect over time using measures of effectiveness developed in (a), (b), and (c) above.

4. A worthwhile contribution to knowledge about the interaction of the individual and the institution of higher education would be a study to determine what institutional factors positively affect faculty members' performance and attitudes. A related study would be to determine what the institution does to help the individual find meaning in that work setting or what institutional factors influence the meaning that individuals find in that work setting.

5. The literature indicates that leadership is essential for the success of faculty development programs. What particular measures of leadership predict the success of faculty development programs? Studies to determine what those predictors are could include (a) a survey of faculty to identify precise measures of leadership that have positively or negatively affected faculty development programs already in progress; or (b) a survey of faculty to determine the effects on faculty development of leadership styles based on a given model, e.g., Fiedler's (1967) contingency model. Such studies would be an important contribution to knowledge about factors influencing the success of faculty development efforts.

6. An interesting comparative study would be to survey another region of the United States or another institutional level, e.g., institutions that grant baccalaureate, master's, and doctoral degrees, to see if the results regarding faculty development efforts to address the developmental needs of middle-aged and older faculty are similar to the results of this study.

7. Based on the experience of this study, the researcher would change the methodology as follows: (a) shorten the questionnaire to include demographic data and questions related only to the issue of addressing the developmental needs of middle-aged and older faculty; (b) choose the same level of institution in another region of the country, e.g., the northeast United States, as the population; (c) on the basis of responses to the questionnaire, do an in-depth study of several institutions, interviewing both directors of faculty development

and middle-aged and older faculty members; and (d) alter the model based on the results of the in-depth study.

Final Comments

Clearly, the survey results revealed an absence of faculty development programs which help middle-aged and older faculty members stay renewed. Why should institutions be concerned about the developmental needs of middle-aged and older faculty members? Are older faculty members, for example, worth bothering about? There are several reasons why institutions should be concerned and why older faculty members are important.

First, and most obvious, as pointed out in Chapter I and demonstrated in the sample institutions in this study, there will be a modal distribution of faculty into older faculty members (ages 56 - 65) by the year 2000 if the current middle-aged faculty members remain in teaching and if relatively few younger members are hired due to projected no-growth patterns of enrollment.

Second, as indicated in the review of literature, institutions maintain their own health by maintaining the health of their members. Institutions are nothing else but organizations of persons.

Third, education is all about persons. Mission statements of four-year colleges are careful to state their concern for the education of persons. The primacy of the person is repeated often in institutional documents and public statements. Those directly charged with the education of other persons are the faculty members. As such, they have

been called the institution's most valuable resource. Their effectiveness, however, is dependent upon their own personal and professional renewal. The institution has a responsibility, as well as a vested interest, to keep that renewal active.

Third, in addition to the effect of individual behavior on the organization, there is the effect of institutional behavior on the individuals within, another point made in the review of the literature. By giving some evidence of concern for the developmental needs of middle-aged and older faculty members, the institution is sending a message to its members that developmental needs are important. Younger members consequently can believe that their projected contributions to the institution are important and will be rewarded and appreciated.

Fourth, the institution is also sending messages to its students and to society at large regarding the value it places on persons. Educational institutions are more than a warehouse of knowledge, a conservatory of humanity's intellectual accomplishments, a laboratory for the exploration of ideas and the pursuit of truth. They are, to a great extent, prophets that announce what is and call society to what can be and what should be. The hidden curriculum concealed in policies, procedures, processes, and decisions conveys more, perhaps, than the overt curriculum. By their printed curriculum, institutions state what they believe is worth learning. By their policies, procedures, processes, and decisions, they state what they value.

In the case of older faculty members, there is a population of people who have dedicated a large portion of their lives to the education of undergraduates. The institution has depended in large part on the professional expertise of these faculty members to build its reputation as an institution of high caliber. Having made this contribution for many years, these persons deserve more than a paycheck, a pension, and a gold watch. They deserve to be recognized for who they are--persons who have given their lives in the service of educating others in this institution. And they need to know long before retirement that the institution assures them of this recognition.

Besides being aware of the rising median age of tenured faculty members over the next 20 years, institutions need to examine their values as they relate to middle-aged and older faculty members, to evaluate their policies, procedures, and processes as these reflect the institution's values regarding faculty development for middle-aged and older faculty, and to provide the necessary leadership to address this issue. One way to heighten institutional awareness of the developmental needs of middle-aged and older faculty members, to challenge existing attitudes toward faculty development for these particular age groups, and to begin forming an institutional rationale for addressing these needs is the effective use of interviews. Academic deans could learn a great deal about the needs of middle-aged and older faculty members by asking them what they are, how and to what extent these needs are being met in the institution, and what remains to be done. Another way is the use of workshops for administrators on the importance of addressing these needs and on theoretical and practical ways to do it. Whether the

institution chooses to acknowledge the rising median age of faculty or not, the issue and its ramifications are real. One wonders both what could evolve if it is ignored and what could happen if it is confronted.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

A-1 List of institutions surveyed

A-2 Cover letter written by Dr. Jack I. Bardon to accompany the questionnaire

A-3 Cover letter written by the researcher to accompany the questionnaire

A-4 The questionnaire

Appendix A-1

List of Institutions Surveyed

(by State)

Alabama

Athens State College, Athens
Birmingham-Southern College, Birmingham
Huntingdon College, Montgomery
Judson College, Marion
Miles College, Birmingham
Mobile College, Mobile
Oakwood College, Huntsville
Spring Hill College, Mobile
Stillman College, Tuscaloosa
Talladega College, Talladega

Florida

Baptist Bible Institute, Graceville
Bethune-Cookman College, Daytona Beach
Eckerd College, St. Petersburg
Edward Waters College, Jacksonville
Flagler College, St. Augustine
Florida Memorial College, Opa-Locka
Florida Southern College, Lakeland
Palm Beach Atlantic College, W. Palm Beach
Ringling School of Art and Design, Sarasota
St. John Vianney College Seminary, Miami
St. Leo College, Saint Leo
Warner Southern College, Lake Wales
Webber College, Babson Park

Georgia

Agnes Scott College, Decatur
Albany State College, Albany
The Atlanta College of Art, Atlanta
Clark College, Atlanta
Covenant College, Lookout Mountain
Kennesaw College, Marietta
Morehouse College, Atlanta
Morris Brown College, Atlanta
Paine College, Augusta
Piedmont College, Demorest
Shorter College, Rome
Southern Technical Institute, Marietta
Spelman College, Atlanta
Tift College, Forsyth
Wesleyan College, Macon

Kentucky

Alice Lloyd College, Pippa Passes
Asbury College, Wilmore
Berea College, Berea
Brescia College, Owensboro
Cambellsville College, Cambellsville
Centre College of Kentucky
Cumberland College, Williamsburg
Kentucky Wesleyan College, Owensboro
Pikeville College, Pikeville
Thomas More College, Crestview Hills
Transylvania University, Lexington

Louisiana

Dillard University, New Orleans
Louisiana College, Pineville
Our Lady of the Holy Cross College, New Orleans
St. Joseph Seminary College, St. Benedict
St. Mary's Dominican College, New Orleans
Southern University in New Orleans, New Orleans

Mississippi

Belhaven College, Jackson
Blue Mountain College, Blue Mountain
Rust College, Holly Springs
Tougaloo College, Tougaloo

North Carolina

Atlantic Christian College, Wilson
Barber-Scotia College, Concord
Belmont Abbey College, Belmont
Bennett College, Greensboro
Catawba College, Salisbury
Davidson College, Davidson
Elizabeth City State University, Elizabeth City
Elon College, Elon College
Greensboro College, Greensboro
Guilford College, Guilford
High Point College, High Point
Johnson C. Smith University, Charlotte
Livingstone College, Salisbury
Mars Hill College, Mars Hill
Meredith College, Raleigh
Methodist College, Fayetteville
University of North Carolina at Asheville, Asheville
North Carolina School of the Arts, Winston-Salem
North Carolina Wesleyan College, Rocky Mount
Pfeiffer College, Misenheimer
Sacred Heart College, Belmont

St. Andrew's Presbyterian College, Laurinburg
St. Augustine's College, Raleigh
Salem College, Winston-Salem
Shaw University, Raleigh
Wingate College, Wingate
Winston-Salem State University, Winston-Salem

South Carolina

Baptist College at Charleston, Charleston
Benedict College, Columbia
Central Wesleyan College, Central
Claffin College, Orangeburg
Coker College, Hartsville
Lander College, Greenwood
Limestone College, Gaffney
Morris College, Sumter
Newberry College, Newberry
Presbyterian College, Clinton
University of South Carolina--Aiken, Aiken
University of South Carolina--Coastal Carolina, Conway
University of South Carolina--Spartanburg, Spartanburg
Voorhees College, Denmark
Wofford College, Spartanburg

Tennessee

Belmont College, Nashville
Bethel College, McKenzie
Bryan College, Dayton
Carson-Newman College, Jefferson City
Christian Brothers College, Memphis
David Lipscomb College, Nashville
Freed-Hardeman College, Henderson
Johnson Bible College, Knoxville
King College, Inc., Bristol
Knoxville College, Knoxville
Lambuth College, Jackson
Lane College, Jackson
Lee College, Cleveland
Lemoyne-Owen College, Memphis
Lincoln Memorial University, Harrogate
Maryville College, Maryville
Memphis Academy of Arts, Memphis
Milligan College, Milligan College
Southern Missionary College, Collegedale
Southwestern at Memphis, Memphis
Tennessee Wesleyan College, Athens
Trevecca Nazarene College, Nashville
Tusculum College, Greenville
Union University, Jackson

Texas

Bishop College, Dallas
Concordia Lutheran College, Austin
Dallas Baptist College, Dallas
East Texas Baptist College, Marshall
Gulf Coast Bible College, Houston
University of Houston - Downtown College, Houston
Howard Payne University, Brownwood
Huston-Tillotson College, Austin
Jarvis Christian College, Hawkins
LeTourneau College, Longview
Lubbock Christian College, Lubbock
University of Mary Hardin-Baylor, Belton
McMurry College, Abilene
Paul Quinn College, Waco
Southwestern Adventist College, Keene
Southwestern University, Georgetown
Texas A&M University at Galveston, Galveston
Texas College, Tyler
Texas Lutheran College, Seguin
Wayland Baptist University, Plainview
Wiley College, Marshall

Appendix A-2

THE UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA
AT GREENSBORO

School of Education

December 14, 1983

Dr. Charles A. Stevens
Associate Dean
Southern Technical Institute
1112 Clay Street
Marietta GA 30060

Dear Dr. Stevens,

Sister Rosalind Picot's research topic is one about which we know little and about which many of us in higher education are deeply concerned. In the past, a constant turnover of faculty members and the addition of young teachers and scholars served in many ways to invigorate our campuses. The persistent aging of our faculty is gradually changing the very nature of our institutions, requiring us to think anew about how best to keep faculty morale high and how to stimulate high quality teaching and scholarship.

I hope you view the problem as important enough to offer your assistance. We estimate that completion of the survey form should take 30 minutes or less. We also know that your desk is already crowded with unfinished business, especially just before the Christmas holiday. All we can do is to ask that you consider the value of her study, knowing already that you realize how important it is to a researcher to realize a good return in order to make the survey results representative of the population studied.

Sister Rosalind's dissertation committee is enthusiastic about her study. We have encouraged her to consider publishing in book form her results and the model of faculty renewal for middle-age and older faculty she plans to prepare. With your assistance, we believe her project can be useful to all of us and will, in fact, reach a wide audience.

Sincerely yours,

Jack I. Bardon
Excellence Foundation Professor
of Education and Psychology

Appendix A-3

Sacred Heart College

BELMONT, NORTH CAROLINA 28012

OFFICE OF ACADEMIC AFFAIRS

December 14, 1983

Dr. Charles A. Stevens
Associate Dean
Southern Technical Institute
1112 Clay Street
Marietta GA 30060

Dear Dr. Stevens,

As a fellow administrator who works with faculty, I am aware that the median age of faculty is rising. The Carnegie Council in its report, Three Thousand Futures, predicts that the modal age of tenured faculty in four-year institutions in the year 2000 will be 56-65. The Council estimates that there will soon be far more older than younger faculty. This startling prediction has important implications for those of us who administer in higher education. I am writing to secure your assistance in studying this issue.

I am a doctoral candidate at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro, working on my dissertation. My study addresses the ways in which middle-age and older faculty members may be renewed. I am surveying all the four-year colleges accredited by the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools and wish to describe current institutional activities which address these issues. The results of the survey should provide a profile of faculty development programs and activities in the southern United States.

Will you please complete the enclosed questionnaire, or give it to the person responsible for faculty development on your campus to complete, and return it in the envelope provided by January 10, 1984. If you are interested in the results of the survey, please complete the form at the end of the questionnaire, and I will be happy to share my findings with you. In all reports the identity of each institution will be kept confidential.

I look forward to reading your responses to this questionnaire and thank you for your participation in this study.

Sincerely,

(Sister) Mary Rosalind Picot, R.S.M.
Associate Academic Dean

Appendix A-4

QUESTIONNAIRE ON FACULTY DEVELOPMENT

(Please return by January 10, 1984)

Name of this institution _____

1. This institution is: (Check all that apply)

___a. public
___b. private
___c. denominational _____
___d. non-denorinational
___e. coeducational
___f. single sex--male
___g. single sex--female
___h. boarding only
___i. commuting only
___j. boarding and commuting

2. Name of person completing this questionnaire_____.

Title_____.

3. For purposes of this study, faculty development is defined as all those activities and programs provided by the institution that promote the professional life and the personal life, insofar as it affects the professional life, of the individual faculty member. These may be formal (organized) and institution-wide; formal (organized), in individual units, e.g., departments; or informal (not systematically organized).

(1) Please indicate the nature of your faculty development efforts by checking all that apply:

___a. formal, institution-wide
___b. formal, in individual units
___c. informal

(2) Which is most descriptive of your faculty development efforts? (Check one)

___a. formal, institution-wide
___b. formal, in individual units
___c. informal

(3) If you checked "informal" in 3(1), please describe how this is done:

_____

_____

(If you checked 'formal', that is "a' or "b", in 3(1), continue below. If you checked only "informal" in 3(1), that is 'c", skip to question #7 and continue from there.)

4. If there is a formal program is there an official responsible for administering the program? (Check one)

___a. Yes ___b. No

If YES, what is this official's name? _____. Title_____.

5. This person is a member of: (Check one)

___a. the faculty ___b. the administration ___c. both

6. This position is a: (Check one)

___a. full-time responsibility b. part-time responsibility

7. Please check the ways in which your institution makes the faculty aware of its faculty development policy and programs. (Check all that apply)

___a. Orientation
___b. Grour meetings
___c. Faculty meetings
___d. Departmental meetings
___e. Interviews
___f. Faculty Handbook
___g. Bulletin boards
___h. Memoranda
___i. Other (Please specify)
_____
_____

8. Which of the following is the predominant emphasis on faculty development at this institution? (Check one)

___a. matching the program with individual faculty needs
___b. matching the program with institutional needs
___c. other (Please specify) _____

9. Which of the following best describe(s) the approach(es) used to carry on faculty development at your institution? (Check all that apply)

___a. Instructional improvement
___b. Personal development
___c. Professional development
___d. Organization development
___e. General improvement of quality of life
___f. Other (Please specify) _____
_____

10. Is there a written policy for faculty development in your institution upon which faculty development programs are based? (Check one)

___a. Yes ___b. No

If YES, please attach a copy of the policy.

11. The faculty development program is evaluated: (Check all that apply)

___a. by administration on a systematic basis;
___b. by faculty on a systematic basis;
___c. by both administration and faculty on a systematic basis;
___d. by administration, but not on a systematic basis;
___e. by faculty, but not on a systematic basis;
___f. by both administration and faculty, but not on a systematic basis;
___g. not at all.

12. Faculty members are rewarded for participation in faculty development programs: (Check all that apply)

___a. through economic gain (including provision of money, or materials, e.g., books provided for faculty study groups);
___b. through non-economic gain, e.g., prestige, esteem, positive acceptance, CEUs, consideration in promotion and tenure decisions;
___c. not at all.

13. Some institutions have faculty development programs based on specific psychological and/or sociological theories. Please check those that apply at your institution:

___a. adult developmental theories
___b. organization development theories
___c. systems theory
___d. motivation theory
___e. other theory (Please specify) _____
___f. no specific theory is used

14. Are the developmental needs of middle-age and older faculty considered to be an important issue by the governing board and/or administration of your institution? (Check one)

___a. Yes ___b. No ___c. Do not know

If YES, what evidence is there to verify this concern? _____

15. Does your institution address the developmental needs of middle-age (38-59 years) and older faculty (60-70 years) in its faculty development policy?

___a. Yes ___b. No

If you answered YES, please state how and attach supporting documents, if available.

16. Does your institution address the developmental needs of middle-age and older faculty in its faculty development programs?

___a. Yes ___b. No

(If you answered YES to #16, continue below; if you answered NO, skip to #18, and continue from there.)

17. If you answered YES to #16, please describe what is being done, if anything, that is different from what is done for the rest of the faculty.

18. If you answered NO to #16, does your institution have plans to address this issue (developmental needs of middle-age and older faculty) in the future? (Check one)

___a. Yes ___b. No

19. If YES, what are those plans? _____

20. Does your institution have a retirement policy? (Check one)

___a. Yes ___b. No

21. If YES, please state what it is, or attach a copy. _____

22. A list of possible faculty development programs and activities is printed on the next page. Please make the following judgments:

a. In Column I, put an I beside those programs and activities which are offered institution-wide, a U beside those offered in individual units, and an N beside those not offered at this time; (Where you put N beside an item, do not mark Columns II, III, or IV)

b. In Column II, put an R beside any programs and activities which are required of faculty, a V beside those which are voluntary;

c. In Column III, please indicate the degree of involvement by the faculty (either individually or through faculty representatives) in the design of these programs and activities; (Use a scale of 1 to 5, with 1 being Very Little, 5 being Very Much)

d. In Column IV, please indicate the extent to which faculty participate in the programs and activities.
(Use a scale of 1 to 5, with 1 being Very Little, 5 being Very Much)

	I Mark I institution U units N not present	II Mark R required V voluntary	III Mark 1,2,3,4, or 5 Design	IV Mark 1,2,3,4, or 5 Programs
A. Leaves, awards, grants, etc.				
22-1 Flexible sabbatical leaves with at least half-salary				
22-2 Flexible leaves of absence				
22-3 Temporary leaves of absence				
22-4 Faculty exchange				
22-5 Visiting scholars to other campuses				
22-6 Annual excellence awards for teaching, for research				
22-7 Grants for research, travel, innovations				
22-8 Institutional support for professional activities				
22-9 Visitation to other institutions				
22-10 Other (Please specify)_____				
B. Workshops, seminars, lectures				
22-11 on professional development				
22-12 on personal development, e.g., on physical, mental, emotional health				
22-13 on career development				
22-14 on organization development				
22-15 other (Please specify)_____				
C. Assessment and analysis				
22-16 Systematic evaluations by students for promotion decisions				
22-17 Systematic evaluations by students for formative purposes and which are requested by faculty member				
22-18 Self-assessment				
22-19 Analysis of in-class video tapes				
22-20 Classroom visitation by administrators upon invitation				
22-21 Growth contracts				
22-22 Other (Please specify)_____				
D. Collegial activities				
22-23 Formal and/or informal evaluation by colleagues				
22-24 Taking courses offered by colleagues for credit or for audit				
22-25 Study groups within the institution				
22-26 Mentoring system				
22-27 Internal consultant to improve academic life of faculty				
22-28 Support groups within the institution				
22-29 Networking opportunities with faculty in other institutions				
22-30 Other (Please specify)_____				
E. Institutional activities				
22-31 Organization development activities				
22-32 Leadership opportunities, e.g., serving as departmental chair, as committee chair				
22-33 Committee membership				
22-34 Participation in institutional planning processes				
22-35 Opportunities to consult within institution				
22-36 Other (Please specify)_____				
F. Miscellaneous activities				
22-37 Availability of specialists (e.g., in media) to support research or teaching				
22-38 Availability of personal counseling to faculty				
22-39 Opportunities and facilities for physical exercise programs				
22-40 Office for faculty career planning and/or counseling				
22-41 Pre-retirement planning				
22-42 Re-training for career shift				
22-43 Opportunities for community service				
22-44 Opportunities for external consulting				
22-45 Other (Please specify)_____				

The questions which follow are essential to the purposes of my study. They ask for detailed information that your institution may have in a different form. Where this information is accessible, please give exact figures. Where it is not accessible, please approximate your answers.

23. Is there a line-item budget for faculty development? (Check one)

___a. Yes ___b. No

24. If YES,

a. Please write in the amount of the budget for faculty development for FY 1983-1984 according to source:

(1) $_____state funds (5) $_____tuition
(2) $_____grants (6) $_____other (Please specify) _____
(3) $_____private donations (7) $_____other (Please specify) _____
(4) $_____foundations

b. Please write in the total amount of the line-item budget for faculty development for FY 1983-1984: $_____

c. What percentage of the total institutional operational budget is devoted to faculty development for FY 1983-1984? _____

25. If there is not a formally budgeted amount, please estimate as best you can the approximate percentage of the budget to be spent on faculty development activities during FY 1983-1984:

_____

26. What is the total FTE student enrollment in Fall, 1983-1984? _____

27. Please put the number of faculty members in the designated categories. Note that faculty members are categorized according to full-time, part-time employment, rank, sex, and age.

FACULTY PROFILE

		Full-time			Part-time		
		24-37	38-59	60-70	24-37	38-59	60-70
Instructor	M						
	F						
Assistant Professor	M						
	F						
Associate Professor	M						
	F						
Full Professor	M						
	F						

28. What percentage of the full-time faculty hold tenure? _____

What percentage of the total faculty hold tenure? _____

29. Please add any additional comments you wish to make regarding faculty development as it addresses the needs of middle-age and older faculty:

If you wish to have a copy of the results of this survey, please complete the form below:

Please send me a copy of the results of this survey.

Name Title Name of Institution

Please return by January 10, 1984 to:

Sister Rosalind Picot
2200 N. Elm St.
Greensboro, N. C. 27408

APPENDIX B

B-1 Directions for obtaining a copy of the raw data on the questionnaire results

B-2 Summary responses of all institutions on questionnaire items 3 - 16, 18, 20 and 23

B-3 Frequencies of institutions offering each faculty development activity according to extent

B-4 Frequencies of institutions offering each faculty development activity as voluntary or required

B-5 Mean scores of institutions on involvement of faculty in design of each activity and on participation of faculty in each activity

B-6 Mean numbers of faculty by rank, sex, age, and full-time or part-time status in public institutions

B-7 Mean numbers of faculty by rank, sex, age, and full-time or part-time status in private institutions

B-8 Summary responses of public and private institutions on questionnaire items 3 - 16, 18, 20, and 23

Appendix B-1

The raw data from the questionnaire responses may be obtained by contacting the researcher, Mary Rosalind Picot, R.S.M., at Sacred Heart College, Belmont, North Carolina 28012.

Table B-2

Summary Responses of All Institutions on Questionnaire Items 3 - 16, 18, 20, and 23

Questionnaire items	All Institutions N	All Institutions %
Nature of faculty development efforts[a]		
Formal, institution-wide	83	66.4
Formal, in units	36	28.8
Informal	74	59.2
Most descriptive of efforts		
Formal, institution-wide	67	53.6
Formal, in units	10	8.0
Informal	35	28.0
Missing data	13	10.4
Official responsible for program		
Yes	77	61.6
No	4	3.2
Committee	3	2.4
Missing data	41	32.8
Status of official		
Faculty	7	5.6
Administration	36	28.8
Both	37	29.6
Missing data	45	36.0
Time spent in position		
Full time	5	4.0
Part time	72	57.6
Committee	3	2.4
Missing data	45	36.0
Communication regarding program by[a]		
Orientation	74	59.2
Group meetings	39	31.2
Faculty meetings	99	79.2
Departmental meetings	65	52.0
Interview	31	24.8
Faculty handbook	81	64.8
Bulletin board	38	30.4
Memoranda	82	65.6
Other	16	12.8

(table continues)

Questionnaire items	All Institutions N	%
Emphasis of program		
Match program with individual faculty needs	55	44.0
Match program with institutional needs	36	28.8
Match program with both needs	21	16.8
Missing data	13	10.4
Best description of approach[a]		
Instructional development	88	70.4
Personal development	59	47.2
Professional development	108	86.4
Organizational development	25	20.0
Quality of life	20	16.0
Other	4	3.2
Written Policy		
Yes	31	24.8
No	80	64.0
Missing data	14	11.2
Evaluation of program[b]		
Systematic, by administration	10	8.0
Systematic, by faculty	2	1.6
Systematic, by both	30	24.0
Nonsystematic, by administration	9	7.2
Nonsystematic, by faculty	6	4.8
Nonsystematic, by both	53	42.4
No evaluation	8	6.4
Rewards for participation[a]		
Economic	81	64.8
Non-economic	86	68.8
No reward	8	6.4
Theory-based program[a]		
Adult development	3	2.4
Organization development	7	5.6
Systems	2	1.6
Motivational	8	6.4
No theory	102	81.6
Evidence of concern in governing board/administration		
Yes	48	38.4
No	44	35.2
Unknown	23	18.4
Missing data	10	8.0

(table continues)

Questionnaire items	All Institutions N	All Institutions %
Evidence of concern in faculty development policies		
Yes	20	16.0
No	93	74.4
Unknown	1	0.8
Missing data	11	8.8
Evidence of concern in faculty development programs		
Yes	26	20.8
No	86	68.8
Unknown	1	0.8
Missing data	12	9.6
Evidence of concern in faculty development plans		
Yes	14	11.2
No	67	53.6
Unknown	1	0.8
Missing data	43	34.4
Retirement Policy		
Yes	106	84.8
No	11	8.8
Missing data	8	6.4
Line-item in budget		
Yes	62	49.6
No	53	42.4
Missing data	10	8.0

[a]Respondents could check more than one response; therefore, percentages total more than 100%. [b]Respondents could check more than one response among seven choices, collapsed here into three variables; therefore, a total equal to 100% does not apply.

Table B-3

Frequencies of Institutions Offering Each Faculty Development Activity According to Extent

	Extent									
	Institution-wide		Unit		Both		Not offered		Missing data	
Activity	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Flexible sabbatical leaves	69	55.2	1	0.8			42	33.6	13	10.4
Flexible leaves of absence	89	71.2	5	4.0			20	16.0	11	8.8
Temporary leaves of absence	82	65.6	14	11.2			15	12.0	14	11.2
Faculty exchange	38	30.4	9	7.2			61	48.8	17	13.6
Visiting scholars	32	25.6	8	6.4			70	56.0	15	12.0
Excellence awards	62	49.6	4	3.2	1	0.8	46	36.8	12	9.6
Grants	82	65.6	13	10.4			17	13.6	13	10.4
Institutional, professional support	97	77.6	13	10.4	1	0.8	3	2.4	11	8.8
Visitation	59	47.2	18	14.4			34	27.2	14	11.2
Other leaves, awards, etc.	3	2.4					9	7.2	113	90.4
Workshops, etc. on:										
Professional development[a]	78	62.4	12	9.6			23	18.4	11	8.8
Personal development[a]	39	31.2	9	7.2	1	0.8	63	50.4	12	9.6
Career development	29	23.2	13	10.4			67	53.6	16	12.8

(table continues)

Activity	Institution-wide N	Institution-wide %	Unit N	Unit %	Both N	Both %	Not offered N	Not offered %	Missing data N	Missing data %
Organization development	39	31.2	12	9.6			57	45.6	17	13.6
Other workshops	2	1.6	1	1.8			16	12.8	106	84.8
Evaluations by students										
For promotion decisions[a]	77	61.6	5	4.0			32	25.6	10	8.0
For formative purposes	58	46.4	18	14.4			36	28.8	13	10.4
Self-assessment	69	55.2	17	13.6			26	20.8	13	10.4
Analysis of in-class videotapes	16	12.8	22	17.6			71	56.8	16	12.8
Administrative classroom visitation	49	39.2	21	16.8	1	0.8	40	32.0	14	11.2
Growth contracts	14	11.2	7	5.6	1	0.8	86	68.8	17	13.6
Other assessment and analysis	6	4.8					14	11.2	105	84.0
Evaluation by colleagues	76	60.8	16	12.8	1	0.8	21	16.8	11	8.8
Auditing colleagues' courses	70	56.0	25	20.0			19	15.2	11	8.8
Study groups	29	23.2	27	21.6	1	0.8	54	43.2	14	11.2
Mentoring system	11	8.8	8	6.4			90	72.0	16	12.8
Internal consultant	27	21.6	7	5.6			78	62.4	13	10.4
Support groups	28	22.4	16	12.8			66	52.8	15	12.0
Networking opportunities	26	20.8	18	14.4			66	52.8	15	12.0
Other collegial activities	1	0.8					11	8.8	113	90.4
Organization development activities[a]	38	30.4	11	8.8			54	43.2	21	16.8
Leadership opportunities[a]	91	72.8	16	12.8	3	2.4	4	3.2	10	8.0

(table continues)

Activity	Institution-wide		Unit		Both		Not offered		Missing data	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Committee membership[a]	107	85.6	5	4.0	2	1.6			10	8.0
Institutional planning activities[a]	102	81.6	8	6.4	2	1.6	2	1.6	10	8.0
Opportunities to consult within[a]	62	49.6	10	8.0	2	1.6	35	28.0	15	12.0
Other institutional activities							13	10.4	112	89.6
Availability of specialists	54	43.2	15	12.0			42	33.6	14	11.2
Availability of personal counseling[a]	58	46.4	8	6.4			47	37.6	11	8.8
Physical exercise programs	88	70.4	8	6.4			17	13.6	12	9.6
Faculty career planning/ counseling	20	16.0					91	72.8	14	11.2
Pre-retirement planning	38	30.4	3	2.4			70	56.0	14	11.2
Re-training for career shift	15	12.0	10	8.0			86	68.8	14	11.2
Community service opportunities[a]	88	70.4	14	11.2	1	0.8	10	8.0	11	8.8
External consulting opportunities[a]	66	52.8	22	17.6	1	0.8	22	17.6	13	10.4
Other miscellaneous activities	1	0.8					7	5.6	117	93.6

[a]One respondent placed a check mark by each of these items; since its meaning is ambiguous, it was not recorded here, and the row percentages do not total 100%.

Table B-4

Frequencies of Institutions Offering Each Faculty Development Activity as Voluntary or Required

	Voluntary		Required		Both		Missing[a] data	
Activity	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Flexible sabbatical leaves	67	53.6	2	1.6			56	44.8
Flexible leaves of absence	90	72.0					35	28.0
Temporary leaves of absence	94	75.2					31	24.8
Faculty exchange	46	36.8	1	0.8			78	62.4
Visiting scholars	40	32.0					85	68.0
Excellence awards	47	37.6	9	7.2			69	55.2
Grants	89	71.2	3	2.4			33	26.4
Institutional, professional support	98	78.4	6	4.8			21	16.8
Visitation	73	58.4			1	0.8	51	40.8
Other leaves, awards, etc.	3	2.4					122	97.6
Workshops, etc. on:								
Professional development	53	42.4	29	23.2	4	3.2	39	31.2
Personal development	39	31.2	10	8.0	1	0.8	75	60.0
Career development	33	26.4	5	4.0	1	0.8	86	68.8
Organization development	41	32.8	13	10.4			71	56.8
Other workshops, etc.	2	1.6					123	98.4
Evaluations by students								
For promotion decisions	68	9.6	12	54.4			45	36.0
For formative purposes	34	27.2	37	29.6	1	0.8	53	42.4
Self-assessment	31	24.8	50	40.0			44	35.2
Analysis of in-class videotapes	36	28.8					89	71.2
Administrative classroom visitation	53	42.4	14	11.2	2	1.6	56	44.8
Growth contracts	11	8.8	10	8.0	1	0.8	103	82.4
Other assessment and analysis	6	4.8					119	95.2
Evaluation by colleagues	29	23.2	59	47.2	2	1.6	35	28.0
Auditing colleagues' courses	92	73.6	1	0.8			32	25.6
Study groups	51	40.8			2	1.6	72	57.6
Mentoring system	18	14.4	1	0.8			106	84.8
Internal consultant	33	26.4	1	0.8			91	72.8
Support groups	40	32.0	2	1.6			83	66.4

(table continues)

Activity	Voluntary N	Voluntary %	Required N	Required %	Both N	Both %	Missing[a] data N	Missing[a] data %
Networking opportunities	41	32.8					84	67.2
Other collegial activities	2	1.6					123	98.4
Organization development activities	33	26.4	15	12.0	1	0.8	76	60.8
Leadership opportunities	74	59.2	28	22.4	4	3.2	19	15.2
Committee membership	28	22.4	79	63.2	5	4.0	13	10.4
Institutional planning activities	61	48.8	43	34.4	4	3.2	17	13.6
Opportunities to consult within	65	52.0	3	2.4	2	1.6	55	44.0
Availability of specialists	62	49.6	7	5.6			56	44.8
Availability of personal counseling	64	51.2	2	1.6	1	0.8	58	46.4
Physical exercise programs	93	74.4	1	0.8			31	24.8
Faculty career planning/ counseling	20	16.0	1	0.8			104	83.2
Pre-retirement planning	39	31.2	1	0.8			85	68.0
Re-training for career shift	25	20.0			1	0.8	99	79.2
Community service opportunities	95	76.0	6	4.8	1	0.8	23	18.4
External consulting opportunities	88	70.4					37	29.6

[a]"Missing" category includes items reported as being "Not present" in the institution as well as missing data.

Table B-5

Mean Scores of Institutions on Involvement of Faculty in Design of Each Activity and on Participation in Each Activity

	Faculty involvement					
	Design of activity			Participation in activity		
Activity	N	$\bar{X}$	SD	N	$\bar{X}$	SD
Flexible sabbatical leaves	69	3.667	1.379	66	3.394	1.369
Flexible leaves of absence	89	3.124	1.405	87	2.425	1.273
Temporary leaves of absence	91	2.945	1.448	88	2.273	1.229
Faculty exchange	46	2.652	1.676	46	1.413	0.884
Visiting scholars	38	2.684	1.662	38	1.632	1.172
Excellence awards	59	3.000	1.565	52	3.538	1.448
Grants	90	3.611	1.396	87	3.402	1.166
Institutional, professional support	103	3.340	1.397	100	3.570	1.166
Visitation	69	2.928	1.343	66	2.288	1.034
Other leaves, awards, etc.	2	2.000	1.414	2	2.500	0.707
Workshops, etc. on:						
Professional development	86	3.581	1.153	83	3.783	1.159
Personal development	47	3.149	1.351	45	2.867	1.254
Career development	40	2.725	1.132	37	2.811	1.330
Organization development	49	2.592	1.171	46	2.870	1.240
Other workshops, etc.	2	2.500	0.717	4	3.250	1.258
Evaluations by students for:						
Promotion decisions	78	4.141	1.170	74	4.554	0.813
Formative purposes	70	3.986	1.234	65	3.862	1.402
Self-assessment	79	3.823	1.248	74	3.986	1.308
Analysis of in-class videotapes	35	3.057	1.589	34	2.000	0.921
Administrative classroom visitation	67	3.060	1.496	63	2.524	1.501
Growth contracts	21	3.571	1.399	21	3.286	1.707
Other assessment and analysis	6	3.333	1.366	7	4.571	0.787
Evaluation by colleagues	89	3.820	1.361	85	3.929	1.252
Auditing colleagues' courses	87	2.770	1.523	85	2.082	0.941
Study groups	54	3.315	1.490	51	2.431	1.136
Mentoring system	18	2.722	1.487	17	2.294	1.160

(table continues)

Activity	Design of activity N	$\bar{X}$	SD	Participation in activity N	$\bar{X}$	SD
Internal consultant	32	2.750	1.391	30	2.600	1.276
Support groups	41	3.171	1.202	39	2.692	1.151
Networking opportunities	42	3.000	1.361	40	2.275	1.012
Other collegial activities				1	4.000	
Organization development activities	48	3.021	1.229	45	3.089	1.221
Leadership opportunitities	103	3.417	1.295	98	3.510	1.151
Committee membership	108	3.954	1.233	104	4.500	0.800
Institutional planning activities	105	3.410	1.214	103	3.515	1.136
Opportunities to consult within	67	3.224	1.335	63	2.762	1.254
Availability of specialists	67	3.060	1.324	63	2.889	1.345
Availability of personal counseling	62	2.694	1.444	60	2.050	1.156
Physical exercise programs	91	2.890	1.312	87	2.563	1.148
Faculty career planning/ counseling	18	2.444	1.294	16	2.500	1.414
Pre-retirement planning	36	3.000	1.512	35	2.429	1.119
Re-training for career shift	24	2.042	1.429	24	1.625	1.173
Community service opportunities	96	3.385	1.356	91	3.066	1.143
External consulting opportunities	81	3.049	1.404	77	2.377	1.113

Table B-6

Mean Numbers of Faculty by Rank, Sex, Age, and Full-time or Part-time Status for Public Institutions[a]

	Age (Full-time)			Age (Part-time[b])		
Faculty rank	24-37	38-59	60-70	24-37	38-59	60-70
Instructor						
Male	2.625	1.833	1.500	8.000	9.500	1.667
Female	3.000	2.143	1.000	5.250	4.600	2.000
Assistant professor						
Male	9.625	10.250	1.250	-	-	-
Female	6.250	7.500	1.000	1.000	-	-
Associate professor						
Male	5.667	17.000	1.500	-	1.000	-
Female	2.800	5.143	1.500	-	-	-
Full professor						
Male	2.000	11.375	2.375	-	-	-
Female	-	1.667	1.000	-	-	-

Note: Hyphen indicates missing data. [a]Means based on a mixture of exact and estimated data reported by institutions. [b]Data missing for most cases.

Table B-7

Mean Numbers of Faculty by Rank, Sex, Age, and Full-time or Part-time Status for Private Institutions[a]

	Age (Full-time)			Age (Part-time[b])		
Faculty rank	24-37	38-59	60-70	24-37	38-59	60-70
Instructor						
Male	3.569	3.025	1.000	4.297	3.774	1.714
Female	3.797	2.761	1.000	3.405	2.829	1.167
Assistant professor						
Male	6.395	5.425	1.412	2.143	2.917	1.000
Female	3.743	3.928	1.167	2.727	2.143	1.333
Associate professor						
Male	2.948	8.269	2.676	1.333	1.625	2.000
Female	1.543	3.231	1.394	1.500	2.500	1.000
Full professor						
Male	2.714	8.213	3.000	1.667	1.286	1.900
Female	1.444	2.063	1.756	-	1.000	2.000

Note: Hyphen indicates missing data. [a]Means based on a mixture of exact and estimated data reported by institutions. [b]Data missing for most cases.

Table B-8

Summary Responses of Public and Private Institutions on Questionnaire Items 3-16, 18, 20, and 23

	Public		Private	
Questionnaire Items	N	%	N	%
Nature of faculty development efforts[a]				
Formal, institution-wide	6	50.0	77	68.1
Formal, in units	1	8.3	35	31.0
Informal	9	75.0	65	57.5
Most descriptive of faculty development activities				
Formal, institution-wide	3	25.0	64	56.6
Formal, in units			10	8.8
Informal	7	58.3	28	24.8
Missing data	2	16.7	11	9.7
Faculty development official				
Yes	6	50.0	71	62.8
No			4	3.5
Other (Committee)			3	2.7
Missing data	6	50.0	35	31.0
Nature of position				
Faculty	1	8.3	6	5.3
Administration	2	16.7	34	30.1
Both	3	25.0	34	30.1
Missing data	6	50.0	39	34.5
Time				
Full-time			5	4.4
Part-time	6	50.0	66	58.4
Other			3	2.7
Missing data	6	50.0	39	34.5
Communication regarding faculty development[a]				
Orientation	8	66.7	66	58.4
Group meetings	4	33.3	35	31.0
Faculty meetings	8	66.7	91	80.5
Department meetings	8	66.7	57	50.4
Interviews	1	8.3	30	26.5
Faculty handbook	4	33.3	77	68.1

(table continues)

Questionnaire items	Public N	Public %	Private N	Private %
Bulletin boards	2	16.7	36	31.9
Memoranda	8	66.7	74	65.5
Other	2	16.7	14	12.4
Emphasis of faculty development				
Individual needs	7	58.3	48	42.5
Institutional needs	2	16.7	34	30.1
Other (Both)	1	8.3	20	17.7
Missing data	2	16.7	11	9.7
Approaches to faculty development[a]				
Instructional improvement	7	58.3	81	71.7
Personal development	4	33.3	55	48.7
Professional development	11	91.7	97	85.8
Organization development	2	16.7	23	20.4
Improved quality of academic life	1	8.3	19	16.8
Other	-	-	4	3.5
Written policy for faculty development				
Yes	2	16.7	29	25.7
No	9	75.0	71	62.8
Missing data	1	8.3	13	11.5
Evaluation of program[a]				
Systematic by faculty	1	8.3	9	8.0
Systematic by administration	-	-	2	1.8
Systematic by both	3	25.0	27	23.9
Non-systematic by faculty	-	-	9	8.0
Non-systematic by administration	-	-	6	5.3
Non-systematic by both	5	41.7	48	42.5
No evaluation	2	16.7	6	5.3
Rewards to faculty[a]				
Economic	5	41.7	76	67.3
Non-economic	9	75.0	77	68.1
No rewards	1	8.3	7	6.2
Theory-based program[a]				
Adult development	1	8.3	2	1.8
Organization development	2	16.7	5	4.4
Systems theory	-	-	2	1.8
Motivation theory	-	-	8	7.1
Other theory	-	-	-	-
No theory	7	58.3	95	84.1

(table continues)

Questionnaire items	Public N	Public %	Private N	Private %
Developmental needs of middle-aged and older faculty:				
Governing bd/adm issue				
Yes	4	33.3	44	38.9
No	4	33.3	40	35.4
Unknown	2	16.7	21	18.6
Missing data	2	16.7	8	7.1
Addressed in policies				
Yes	2	16.7	18	15.9
No	9	75.0	84	74.3
Other	-	-	1	0.9
Missing data	1	8.3	10	8.8
Addressed in programs				
Yes	3	25.0	23	20.4
No	8	66.7	78	69.0
Other	-	-	1	0.9
Missing data	1	8.3	11	9.7
Plans to address issue				
Yes	1	8.3	13	11.5
No	7	58.3	60	53.1
Other	-	-	1	0.9
Missing data	4	33.3	39	34.5
Retirement policy				
Yes	11	91.7	95	84.1
No	-	-	11	9.7
Missing data	1	8.3	7	6.2
Budget for faculty development				
Yes	4	33.3	58	51.3
No	7	58.3	46	40.7
Missing data	1	8.3	9	8.0

[a]Respondents could check more than one response. Therefore, percentages total more that 100%.

APPENDIX C

C-1 Interview schedule

C-2 Responses to interview questions transcribed from audiotapes

Appendix C-1

Interview Schedule

1. How did your position as Director of Faculty Development originate?

2. What is your job description? (A copy?)

3. What constitutes part time?

4. What kind of problems do you perceive middle-aged faculty members dealing with? What kinds of behavior are they exhibiting? Do these behaviors constitute problems for the institution? How?

5. What kinds of problems do you perceive older faculty members dealing with? What kinds of behavior are they exhibiting? Do these behaviors constitute problems for the institution? How?

6. When did concern regarding the developmental needs of middle-aged and older faculty members arise? How?

7. Is there a specific statement regarding this issue in your written policy on faculty development?

8. In response to the question what is being done, if anything, that is different from what is being done for the rest of the faculty, you responded that you are "Reworking guidelines on new and different kinds of faculty development support for both groups." On what are these guidelines being based? How are they different from guidelines for faculty in general?

9. You also stated that you are interviewing senior faculty about their needs. What have you learned in the process? Have you developed any programs as a result of these interviews? If so, what?

10. Are there any plans to extend that interview process to middle-aged faculty? to all other faculty?

11. Do you have a sense that middle-aged and older faculty are aware that your institution acknowledges their developmental needs and is attempting to address these needs? How do you know that? How would faculty respond to this? Why do you believe that?

12. Will is cost more to have programs specifically designed to address the developmental needs of middle-aged and older faculty?

13. Of all the activities you listed as being offered, which have been the most successful for middle-aged faculty? How do you measure success? Why do you think these activities have been successful (or have not been successful)?

14. Which have been the most successful for older faculty? How do you measure success? Why do you think these activities have been successful (or have not been successful)?

15. There are several activities that I am specifically interested in for their potential value in addressing the needs of middle-aged and older faculty. You have indicated that you have these on your campus. I would like to know in more detail the processes involved in their use on your campus:

    a. Flexible sabbatical leave
    b. Flexible leaves of absence
    c. Systematic evaluations by students for promotion decisions
    d. Systematic evaluations by students for formative purposes and which are requested by the individual faculty member
    e. Self assessment
    f. Analysis of in-class video tapes
    g. Formal and/or informal evaluation by colleagues
    h. Study groups within the institution
    i. Support groups within the institution
    j. Mentoring system
    k. Internal consultant to improve academic life of faculty
    l. Leadership opportunities
    m. Committee membership
    n. Participation in institutional planning processes
    o. Opportunities to consult within the institution
    p. Availability of personal counseling to faculty
    q. Office for faculty career planning and/or counseling
    r. Opportunities and facilities for physical exercise programs
    s. Institutional support for professional activities

16. Is it your perception that faculty understand that participation in the activities you offer is indeed faculty development and it is offered for that purpose? How do you communicate that something is being offered for the purpose of their development?

17. What specific efforts does your institutions make to link what the individual faculty member does and what the faculty as a whole do with the institution's goals and purposes?

18. Is it your belief that the faculty understand they make a definite and valuable contribution to the institution? How do you arrive at that belief?

19. Is there anything else I should know that would help me to understand your program as it addresses the developmental needs of middle-aged and older persons?

Appendix C-2

Responses to Interview Questions

Note 1: The responses to questions 1 and 3 are edited.

1. (Question: How did your position as Director of Faculty Development originate?)

The position of Director of Faculty Development originated from two sources: (a) a consortium grant was given to the institution to develop Women's Studies, and the current Director of Faculty Development was hired to administer a part of that grant; and (b) a foundation grant of $300,000 was made in response to an institutional request for an endowed grant. This request was denied, but the money was granted for any other purpose that the institution decided. The decision was made to devote the money to faculty development. The grant came at the same time as a surge of need for faculty development. A faculty committee was set up to administer the interest from that money. The money was to be used for those things directly related to teaching. Money for professional development (travel to meetings, etc.) came from the institutional budget. The Committee operated the way it had been set up for three years, but the faculty felt there was trouble in the interpretation and that there was not much clarity.

There was also a carefully designed plan for evaluation of faculty every two, four, and ten years. This was run by the Academic Dean, and there was no connection with the persons administering the faculty development funds. The Faculty Affairs Committee was concerned with the evaluation process, and the Faculty Development Committee with the development issue.

The push for the position of Director of Faculty Development came from the administration for these reasons:

a. the administration felt that the foundation dollars were not being well spent;
b. the faculty did not know to whom to turn after an evaluation;
c. faculty development should not be remedial but should push people to the cutting edge; and
d. the administration wanted someone to do all this.

The Faculty Development Committee and the Foundation Committee merged to decide what should be the nature of the posititon of Director of Faculty Development. A half-time position was created for the Director of Faculty Development Center. However, decisions regarding administration of the Foundation Funds would still be made by the Foundation Committee. That is still true.

There have been a very few given times that the administration wished they had not up control of that money. They wanted something that the Committee would not authorize.

The Director has been in the position for five years. Her background has been in the YMCA and church centers. She is skilled in program development. She does not have a doctorate. Money for professional development (travel to meetings, etc.) has always been available in the budget. It is currently $300 a year per person for faculty to stay current in their disciplines. The stated evaluative criterion for the faculty is that teaching is first. There were some dollars that went to research from the Foundation funds; however, it was felt that the funds would dwindle quickly, and money no longer goes to research. There is a line item for research in the institutional budget. Program development was handled initially through faculty development, but now through the Academic Dean. Some project requests for funds have overlapping concerns: program development and faculty development. Often, money is prorated to cover both.

2. (Question: What is your job description?)

(A copy of the job description was given to the researcher as part of the material on the Faculty Development Center. What follows is taken from that document:)

A. Director

1. Qualifications: The Director's position would be filled on a part-time basis but its activities would be seen as her/his major responsibility. The Director would be a person with an acquaintance with the field of teacher development, and with a demonstrated excellence in program development and inter-personal skills, such as:

a. The ability to work with individuals and groups of diverse types
b. The ability to persuade and excite people to participate
c. A willingness to work with people across disciplinary lines and to read in various disciplines
d. The ability to find resource leaders in all disciplines
e. The ability to work with others to set up policies and do long range planning
f. The ability to set up and effectively run workshops
g. The ability to gain and hold general faculty respect

2. Selection: The Director would be selected by the Council of the Center with final approval by the Clerk's Committee. The entire faculty is to be asked to submit recommendations for this position.

3. Duties: The Director would administer the activities of the

Center. The Director shall play no role in advising for tenure, promotion, and salary. Such activities would be considered a breach of trust of the position.

B. Secretarial Assistance

1. Secretarial assistance would be provided by the Correspondence Center.

3. (Question: What constitutes part time?)

The position is two-thirds of a forty-hour week, including the Women's Studies, which is still considered part of Faculty Development.

Note 2: The Researcher combined questions 4 and 5 since the Director combined middle-aged and older in her response to the first part of question 4.

Note 3: From this point, the Director's responses are given verbatim. The ellipses represent parenthetical remarks either not essential to the substance of the question or potentially threatening to the anonymity of the institution, as judged by the researcher.

4,5. (Question: What kinds of problems do you perceive middle-aged and older faculty members dealing with?)

A lot. I have written two monographs dealing with this issue recently. Most of the middle-aged faculty know they will not be any place but here. There is a large number of teachers where both husband and wife work, and it would be difficult to move and find positions for both. There is an extraordinary sense of support and collegiality, but also they know each other's idiosyncrasies. Sometimes it's forgiven and sometimes it's not. There is that tension between when the community is very sustaining and supportive and when it is very destructive, and it can be both. People are tied to the institution. The interesting thing is that the administration within the last three to four years has come from outside and does not understand. They are moving people; they are going to keep on moving. They are part of the world that moves. And it is very difficult for them to understand that the people here that are here choose to be here in a very real sense and that there is not something wrong with them that they are not moving. So we have two sets of orientation. It is an unconscious part of the administrative thing, "If you don't like it here, if you're frustrated, get up and move." I think that causes tension between the faculty and the administration and the faculty's concept of itself.

One of the difficult things for the middle-aged faculty is that this college has grown in its reputation and its quality because of the extraordinary labors of the faculty. It can be demonstrated over and over again. People have committed time to experimental programs. They've committed energy and compassion to students that they have not been repaid for. There is no way. In some way, it's beyond what you would find in, well, in some institutions. I'm sure that that's true in a lot of liberal arts institutions where there's a strong desire for teaching and real love for teaching and there's a strong loyalty to the institution. But, let me give you a specific example.

We have now had at this college 15 years of interdisciplinary studies . . . and that has been . . . the development of a team-planned, team-taught freshman program that has involved initially 12 faculty and is now at the point where about 20 faculty every year teach this course to the freshmen and about every two or three years it's replanned by a group of 20 faculty. They teach individual sections of it, but they're teaching the same syllabus, they interact with staff members all the time. We've had people who've done that year after year after year; some people have done it all for 15 years so that's changed their model of teaching, too, in a very real way. Well, in most schools you would assume that there would have been a fairly hefty stipend for the preparation of that kind of teaching. We have never paid a faculty member more than $150 to prepare for one of those new versions of a (course). I consider that, that's what I mean when I say there's been a pouring out of energy collectively on the part of the faculty to address the needs of students and to respond to innovative notions within an institution without any significant monies funded. And nobody has ever really complained about it--it's not that there isn't a certainly level of (garbled)--but that's just a part of what makes the ethos of teaching exciting to the people [here]. On the other hand, this has been one of those factors of having a newer administration. What they perceive about the need of the school is that it should be yet even better, yet even more visible; and most people know, particularly the middle-aged, that they've poured every last ounce they know how into doing this and they're older and they don't have as much [energy] and they don't seem to get any credit for what they've done in the past. It's just now what can you do for the future. That's a very big issue. I've got to pour every ounce of my blood into this institution, and somebody wants more and somebody won't say "Yay" about the past.

I've really been trying to address that in my own work, and I'm trying to instruct the institution that we didn't get soft money to fund those programs as they went along. Every time--a pattern evolved in the institution--every time we tried a program, we'd do it on capital intensive style, get it going, then go and ask for funding, and they'd say "Well, if you'd asked us before you started it, we would've funded it, but if that's gone on like this, then we won't." Never had any real exceptions. We've picked up

[some] out of our endowment, which is not really very big, I mean $300,000 doesn't go very far, really, the income from that, so we've been the ones who paid what has gone out, but it hasn't been enough. It's been enough, but it hasn't made anybody rich. . . . In comparing it with other institutions, it's not nearly enough. I'm trying very hard and getting some success that an endowment to support that interdisciplinary [program] just has to be designed, and it's designed for the senior faculty, by that we mean middle-aged and older, the income for that would go towards the senior faculty, which in some sense doesn't mean it would go exclusively to them, we would free money that is already put into the program for the younger faculty, but there would be some funds that would be only for senior faculty to reward them. I don't know how that is going to be. We are now beginning to talk in our long-range plan for faculty development, we make distinctions between the younger faculty, the junior faculty, and senior faculty. . . . We've never done that. . . . We've got to address the stage right before retirement. . . .

(Question: What kinds of behavior are middle-aged and older faculty exhibiting in these situations?)

Some of our weaker faculty have gotten worse. . . . The faculty at the last meeting finally adopted a voluntary evaluation of senior faculty, but it is a very watered-down program. . . . So one of the dilemmas is that some of our senior faculty who were never the most exciting teachers have really slipped and they pay for it in their own self-esteem. They have a much more difficult time making classes, [getting enough students to justify a particular class], they get frustrated, and they have health problems. There is a small handful, but we have a handful. . . . This is my number one priority and the Dean's. . . . This is the one point [where] we are frustrated by the distinction between normative and formative. We have had a whole series of academic deans. . . . We've had a whole lot of turnover in that position. Because we haven't had any mechanisms for evaluation of senior faculty other than that, it has rested on the shoulders of the Deans and they convey negative information to those people and being new in the position it's very difficult to take on senior faculty. It doesn't happen very often. [The new Dean] is beginning to confront the dilemmas of [dealing with it]. It is impossible for me to do that. I can find other ways to try to approach those people, but I can't just go and say to those people "It looks to me like things are falling apart, or I have evidence that things are falling apart." That is inappropriate in the light of my job description. . . . And there is a hesitancy on the part of the Academic Dean to do it, so this is the place, and there is no other structure to do it. So we have a handful, a very small group who are just simply suffering because they're doing relatively anything but teaching, and relatively anything but other work on the campus, and their self-esteem is suffering. . . .

(Question: I haven't looked at your job description, but are you considered an internal consultant?)

Yes, it's not said, but it's possible for me to be perceived that way. The other senior group of faculty who feel more comfortable about themselves are very apt to come and say, "Help!" in various ways. Sometimes it's merely, it starts out with something else, and sometimes it's a way of "Tell me how to fill out this form" or "Does this project fit into . . . ?" Very often, it's just "Hey, I have this class I don't know what to do with. What do you think?" So I do a lot, and we have other people around to help with that as well. We have a program of faculty development associates. . . . The Faculty Development Committee perceives an area where we need assistance, like . . . in working with faculty members who have just gone through a review [evaluative]. Who do they go to? They can come to me. They can go to the Dean. They are told all these options after the review. They can go to the Faculty Development Committee. They can also go to the Faculty Development Associate whose responsibility is working with faculty after reviews. This is a senior faculty member. When we have described an area where we need an Associate . . . and we ask (the faculty) to nominate from among themselves the people they think could be effective in helping [meet this need]. When we get those series of nominations, the Committee makes a choice as to who that person is, . . . and then it's verified by the faculty. So we have had a series of faculty appointments. . . . At this point we still do not have one related to the senior faculty, and I have been pushing for that. We haven't, and, thus far, I'm still the person who does that, but I have hope that within the year we will have an Associate whose responsibility is to work with the senior faculty. That gives another option besides myself.

We also have had, and this doesn't work with the senior faculty, formally it doesn't, we have had a retired faculty member who is very beloved on campus, who has continued to be part of the faculty development committee who is consultant to the younger faculty. So that gives the younger faculty three options other than the Dean: they can come to me, they can go to the Faculty Development Committee, they can go to this retired faculty member who is the advisor for a faculty support group here. . . . Now that same person does a lot of work with senior faculty because they've worked with him . . . but that's on an informal basis. . . . I'm getting to the point now where . . . I wait until I see a pattern. I have heard more faculty, senior faculty who are good teachers, I don't have any question about the quality of their teaching and the creativity of their teaching, come by and say: "I am so worn down by this class I'm teaching" or two things: One is, "I've got one of those kind of classes," and the other is "There is something wrong with my teaching." And they often say they think they're getting old, they're getting tired, there's something wrong with their teaching. . . . We're going to do two strategies with

them: one is, I'm going to bring a group of those senior faculty that we have no question about performance together to try to sort out what is going on, what part of it is fatigue, . . . what part of it is a shift in the student life, what part of it is things that have sifted through and haven't been affected by the curriculum that nobody has been able to put their finger on. To get a group of those people together to say "Let's face these problems. We conclude this is not just one individual, this is a collection of individuals . . . something is wrong here." . . . There is a double sense of "Why have I done this for 15 years and it's always worked, and it isn't working." . . . That's one thing, the other thing is periodic occasions where any faculty can make a complete dunce of silly things, this is to try to have that silly note, but to say we'll have a coffee and anybody that, who's got one of "those" kinds of problems to see if you can do a "one-upmanship" on the next one . . . , and acknowledge that everybody has times when their teaching (garbled) . . . that you cannot reach them . . . and also to collect strategies that we will then keep on file: "How I made it through this semester with that course." So that we're going to try to do that with a lighter note, but also give, . . . particularly the senior faculty who are suffering that dilemma, the sense . . . to just know it's just one of those things that happens . . . and you don't have to pack up your bags and go home. . . . It's interesting since we've been talking that way with people, they say: "I tried this strategy once, it didn't work. I tried it this time, it worked." I think we will begin to devise some . . . strategies that people can go to, think about, add to. Now that's where . . . the initial sense is that the faculty is getting older; they are having difficulties, its related to them, and that something has gone out of their teaching in the sense of desperation . . . "Three more years and I can't face it." That operates.

We have a sense of being enormously supported by our colleagues and at the same time a (sense) . . . that everybody, everybody in their age group knows a lot more about them than obviously they would like them to know. Depending on whether that is an up or a down experience.

I think the other thing is, the one that I've addressed in the work I've done related to this interdisciplinary [program] . . . that for those members who have worked consistently in our interdisciplinary program, either at the freshman or senior level . . . we have both . . . for 15 years, teaching a whole series of [different] materials . . . , they no longer function exclusively in their discipline. They have become very different people, different scholars and teachers, different people. And we have a double responsibility to them to maintain both avenues of professional development. It doesn't work to say: You've gone to your psychology meeting for the year because they also work in the area between psychology and English or between psychology and

religion. The interesting thing to me is the pattern I'm beginning to see and it's still at the beginning stage. I'm a little nervous about saying this . . . the first faculty here who've most been (involved) . . . are turning to research and scholarship later in their career. It is by nature interdisciplinary, it is by nature difficult to be published, it is often tentative in voice. . . . We've had enough people doing that now that I think in the next 10 or 15 years (garbled).

(Question: Are they excited about it?)

They are both excited about it and kind of scared about it. I had a, really a very moving experience. When I decided to focus on this aspect of it: the senior faculty who have been involved seriously in interdisciplinary studies, since the development of it, . . . [it was apparent] that we were in some sense unique, and I had to develop [some sort of history of it], and I could see the kind of scholarship popping up here and there. . . . We fund the Chair of it in our Committee. And we are going to get more calls for money than we have, so that's [why] I'm going to get more money. In order to do that, I did a very statistical summary of the program. I went back and retrieved the whole record so I knew what I was really talking about, and I analyzed what faculty had taught, how many sections, and that kind of thing, what departments had contributed, how many preparations, etc., and came up with this group of faculty who've taught more than 10 of these sections. We took 10 of the oldest of these folks and I introduced a two-part strategy. The first was I spent about an hour interviewing each one of them individually, and asking what had been the impact of their teaching and just listening. In that setting I found a variety of things emerging. One was, "It is the most exciting teaching I do. I could not sustain myself [otherwise]. It is also the most exhausting teaching I do. And I'm not sure I can sustain myself doing it." . . . In some sense they acknowledge that the institution had rewarded them for that behaviour, which I think the institution does, but very sparingly, but in another sense, nobody over there knows what it cost, I mean personal cost, which is, they don't understand. Most said that "We wouldn't give it up for anything . . . but [there is] terrific tension. Most of them perceived themselves as more lonely than they had been before, and also more part of the group than they had been before. And that is in the sense when they left [this campus] and went into a traditional, professional setting, very few people understood where they were coming from. They cut themselves off from certain kind of ongoing professional development off campus. And some had stopped going to professional meetings . . . or they drove themselves to do that. Nobody felt that it had really negatively affected their teaching or their discipline, but it had cut them off in some significant way from their colleagues. The thing that I was not prepared for was a desperate desire to yet make a scholarly contribution, but it would not be within the traditional discipline, it would be on the fringes of [several] disciplines,

and they were not sure they could do it, but there was a desperate desire [to do it]. And these were from people who moved into academia for teaching, have not done extensive work in their own discipline, publishing. . . . They've done some, but this has not been a primary desire of theirs. [They want] to perceive at the end of their career that they will make a contribution. That thing was [new to me], because they are all very good teachers, they thrive on thier teaching. It's new to them, they're kind of scared about it. "How am I going to make my scholarly contribution?" I'm going to bet they're going to make it, but it's going to be very difficult.

So that's happening, and I'm . . . tracing it much more carefully than they are, and I've said it to the institution that if we're going to continue this work, we have to support it . . . we have to support it with endowment, we have to support it with attention. . . . It's not just to find another journal [in which to publish]. . . . It's that these people have another agenda and they do not want it to drain from their teaching. . . . The thing that I perceive about them is two different patterns. One is that people will understand, (let's take someone from the classics) . . . who knows that she will never make a contribution to the classics, she's able to say that about herself, but she's a very good poet. But she will use the insights that she would like to do the classical papers on that come from the interdisciplinary studies and she will use them as the basis for her poetry or the basis for some more personal kind of statement. And because she is not dependent on that scholarly recognition here, she is safe to do that. If she were dependent on turning out the appropriate material, she would not lose, she would not have to fight that. But she is really hurt . . . she has a daughter who has followed in her footsteps and who is going to be a classicist and she knows she has other students who have gone [to be] classicists. And she knows that some of the things that she wants to have done, they will do. She's right. But that's still a loss because she knows she could have done it, if that [had been] the avenue she took, but she didn't. She's gotten much broader than that. And she's very happy with her poetry. On the other hand, there is the sense that she made a decision that, at this point in her life, is slightly more costly than she thought it was going to be when she made it.

The person I started to talk about is trying very hard to write papers in religious [values] from a slightly altered religious perspective. . . . Cannot be accepted in any of those places that traditionally publish about religious figures because his perspective is just off the wall. And he keeps sending out things . . . [and nothing is being accepted], and it is not the fault of his writing, of his research. It does not fit into the [traditional mode]. He has not yet moved into his own. . . . (The Director gave another example, eliminated here.)

I got that group of ten people together. I had worked with each of them separately and brought them together. We had the President, the Dean, and the Development Office people [fund-raisers] to listen to them. And we said "Let's try to articulate . . . [the issues] so that people [can understand] the interdisciplinary program concerns; so that if these people have to sell this, they'll have some background." It was a very [intense] two and a half hours. They [the ten faculty members] led off with a long statement and short individual statements. For those people who . . . had gone into it, they felt they had articulated it. They felt only partially heard. . . . These (President, Dean, etc.) are people who theoretically -- our President talks over and over about the Interdisciplinary Program . . . and yet has not seen this particular model . . . it has not reached the point where you can show books. . . . So it is still developing, and we can only say that it will (garbled). But what is likely to happen is that people will use the informal settings. . . . Those faculty that are involved in this support each other. . . . There is enormous belief here, operating in this setting. They may not be understood, but they are understood by their group, with rotating people into it. . . . For instance, I have been working with a core of eight faculty on [a] theme for ten years, and people keep coming in and out of that discussion, but for those of us who have done it for ten years, we are very different people than we were. We have a series of discussions, long-term discussions on campus that grow out of issues that the faculty wanted to incorporate into the freshman course . . . for instance the whole question of the human encounter with the environment and the question of how evolutionary theory fits. . . . We go round and round and over and under . . . and address it from every conceivable perspective in study groups and in papers and in working with classes . . . and when somebody has done something in that area they are sure to let somebody else who has been interested in that area know. . . . We have eight ongoing dialogues of serious nature that keep growing, changing, and pulling people in. They just keep going on, and that's fundamental that there are those eight people here that know this is an important issue, that are interested in the next step they are taking. . . . That we've been able to do it without a huge amount of money so that will continue. But whether it will be enough. What I'm concerned about is providing some time for people later on in their career more seriously to take the time to write it out, put it together finally.

(Question: Do you have a system of sabbaticals?)

We do have study leaves. They're competitive study leaves, they're not a regular sabbatical program . . . we're putting some pressure on faculty development to see that those be less competitive. . . .

(Question: Does that come under the Academic Dean?)

Yes, the Academic Dean . . . we have six a year now. In the past there were very few, so we're coming from a tradition of not having very many. We have been tracing this . . . we've looked at the senior faculty. There are about 12 to 13 senior faculty who have never had a leave and don't plan to ask for one. And we're saying that that cannot continue. If the reason that they're not going to ask is that they are afraid to go into competition with the younger faculty, then we've got to find another system. . . . But, some faculty members, regularly (garbled), actually everybody who is in that group of 10 people . . . has had a leave. But there again, [I'm] in a quandry, and it's going to be increasingly so now whether the interdisciplinarily designed project will be competitive with the disciplinary leaves. . . . We have yet to see that now, but they're going to be very competitive the next three years because some of the younger faculty are very much involved in their own discipline (garbled) and doing, in terms of our setting here, (garbled) scholarship, so we haven't had to see them compete for those study leaves, but everybody knows it's going to be much.

(Question: What is the relationship of your position, not just your position, but your philosophy, with that of the Academic Dean?)

Fortunately, since I've started the Women's Studies, I've worked with about six different Academic Deans. . . . I've mollified . . . I've been able to find a working relationship with each of them. . . . I do think we [the current Dean and I] have a good relationship in a real sense that we do perceive things differently, but it's all right to have that compatible. . . . We try very hard not to be in conflict. . . . We have a teaching/learning relationship back and forth. It has its moments of tension. . . . We have learned to share a lot of information. We don't divulge confidentialities, but we do a lot of serious (garbled). . . . We meet regularly twice a month. We teach each other a lot. . . .

(Question: How much tension do you experience as a result of the fact that you have as your responsibility the teaching aspect of faculty development, and all these other aspects of faculty development are the responsibility of the Dean?)

I don't feel a lot of tension about that. I think I could be in situations where I do if, in fact . . . I were working in the area that was least valued, but teaching is still the highest valued activity around here. . . . So I feel less a sense of tension about that. I do worry at times that some of the younger faculty get caught at times, because they're caught anyway, in the sense that they're not sure they're going to be tenured here so that they have to maintain a publishing schedule. . . . Those people experience tension, and they don't perceive us as being on opposite sides . . . the two of us. We've maintained this posture

where they don't perceive us as being in competition. There could be tension, but there isn't. If I didn't have a good working relationship with the Dean, it would be (garbled). I have had to teach each successive Dean, even the internal Deans, what faculty development is. . . . I have found a really strong collegiality in each of those relationships. . . . If I didn't feel I knew what I was doing, it would be different.

6. When did concern regarding the developmental needs of middle-aged and older faculty members arise? How?

Well, you mean official concern? I would say that we have probably officially talked about it as a category in the last year, year and a half. That doesn't mean it hasn't been a genuine concern before then, but we haven't talked about it in specific terms of age group before then. It was much more a category related to the individuals who were having a problem in that age group as opposed to its being a concern for an age group as such.

(Question: Was there some specific incident that made that concern evident? How did that arise?)

I think it's a growing awareness. I think a couple of things occurred. One is that we . . . started to think about focusing in on (it). . . . I think most truthfully it was a growing awareness . . . and I think the fact that we'd been doing long-range planning as an institution meant that we had to articulate things and that was one of the categories. . . .

7. (Question: Is there a specific statement regarding this issue in your written policy on faculty development? If so, what is it?)

. . . (Discussion regarding the location of the document) It's the Long Range Plan statement from the Faculty Development Committee, and it uses the category of the senior faculty and it was done this year. (The researcher received a copy of this document from the Director; this statement is quoted in the body of Chapter Five.)

8. (Question: In response to the question what is being done, if anything, that is different from what is done for the rest of the faculty you responded that you are "Reworking guidelines on new and different kinds of faculty development support for both groups." On what are these guidelines based? How are they different from guidelines for faculty in general?)

We haven't actually, I thought we would actually be a little further along. We were in that discussion, and we're still in that discussion, and the guidelines themselves have not changed. We're still in the process, . . . probably because they haven't evolved yet. It has been a general discussion on the basis of the Faculty Development Committee and some discussion with the Chairperson of

the Faculty Affairs Committee that is beginning to prove the basis of the material that we're working with. Age is one category, rank is a category. We try to figure out how, for instance, the definition when we would consider someone a senior faculty member. . . . The other thing is that I did, I told you, I think, interview 10 senior faculty for that. It's part of my work next year to interview all of the senior faculty. . . . If I live through that! It's not the number I'm concerned about. It's the (garbled). I found that with the ten I worked with who are what I would consider the cream of our faculty, I was despondent when I finished.

(Question: You were despondent because you could relate to what they were saying?)

Because I could relate, because I knew it was genuine from them, because I felt that we're on very much of a tightrope. Whether we will really be able to respond as an institution to the needs of those people, I would not (garbled). As I say, these are people that nobody thinks of as having any need. So, I haven't started out with the people that we . . . know have genuine needs. I may ask a senior faculty member to do a good share of this interviewing with me.

(Question: Would you say that the guidelines are based on theories?)

Not that we have brought into focus, but it doesn't mean that we don't have any operating. For instance, the Committee that will be making these decisions worked this year together on the renewal of the teachers in (garbled) by Nelson. And there are implied a series of theories in that, and I think that some of those we agree to and some we don't agree to. We have done a fair amount of discussion here in this college on William Perry, which is certainly not an age group, but the kinds of issues and categories. . . . [There is] a real hesitancy on the part of our faculty as a group . . . not to want to use categories to describe themselves. So, they operate, but very seldom in a direct [way]. . . . We also have used the Kolb learning styles a lot, and we get fascination on the part of the faculty. . . . They think it's great for students, but don't make too much of it for me. . . .

9. (Question: You also stated that you are interviewing senior faculty about their needs--it was the opinion of the researcher that this question had already been discussed. What have you learned in the process? Have you developed any programs as a result of these interviews? If so, what?)

I think the proposal . . . is the closest thing to that (a program). We're doing the groundwork, but I have not developed the programs yet. For instance, I'm looking at it very much more carefully, and internships for faculty. I don't think it's going to succeed, but I want to know if it will succeed with any kind of faculty, because we have two or three people who need something to succeed. . . . So, that's a whole issue.

(Question: When you say internships, what do you mean?)

Internships in government, or to get out of academia for awhile, to go into business or something so that they have a chance to develop another foothold. I have wanted to, and I have not succeeded with the Committee yet, in raising the question of . . . whether the college has and responsibility, what is the nature of that responsibility for midcareer change. . . .

10. (Question: Are there any plans to extend that interview process to middle-aged faculty? to all other faculty?)

There aren't any plans at this moment. I have a feeling that we will work much more carefully at those age breakdowns when we have. We did use those as categories in the Long Range Plan and I'm sure we will continue to use them. I have much more day-to-day sense of what life is like for the junior faculty. I have stronger information on the other two [categories, meaning junior and middle-aged faculty], and a lot with middle faculty, so that the least well known for us at this point is the senior faculty. But I wouldn't be surprised if we don't start addressing some questions . . . we just haven't planned to do anything. I think the way we've described what we're doing in the future, we would just have to do it. Whether it's interviews or not remains to be seen. For instance, one of the questions that I know we're going to have to address, indirectly, it's not our major responsibility, it falls elsewhere, but the most crucial learning experience that I see the middle-aged, the middle group here at this institution, is the development of administrative skills. First of all, the college doesn't want to acknowledge how much administrative work they do, and, second of all, there are no specific ways by which people are trained to do that, and sometimes they are judged very highly and as being very valuable, and that service is sometimes judged very negatively when we have nothing that really helps people to learn those skills. And because our focus is on teaching improvement, we have not really moved into that area, but we will either move into it or see that someone else does. . . . And partly how that gets resolved or unresolved is a major factor, I think, on senior faculty, those people who do poorly in picking up institutional responsibilities in that age group and get judged negatively by their colleagues. It's almost impossible to reverse that pattern in this college. . . . I suspect that everybody knows each other so well, and they know their foibles. It's not that people . . . sometimes people don't change, sometimes they do.

They have to fight this enormous uphill battle to change an image that gets them sort of locked in. . . . We suffer more psychologically than professionally because of the expectations that. . . . Well, it sometimes gets there [suffering professionally] if that person happens to move into a senior, a full professorship, and they haven't been able to do the scholarship. That's a part of the question.

11. (Question: Do you have a sense that middle-aged and older faculty are aware that your institution acknowledges their developmental needs and is attempting to address test needs?

Some of them are.

(Question: How do you know that?)

Well, . . . I've talked a lot about it to a lot of them. I do. My general sense it that the faculty who have participated significantly in any way in the program understand that the institution has made a commitment in this area. One of the ways that I can tell that is if I am with those people and faculty from other institutions here or out visting, I have listened to them (garbled) about this. That's one of the reasons that we're going to do the individual interviewing, because there is a body of the older faculty who don't participate that much, who don't perceive the institution as having more than a meddling concern.

12. (Question: Will it cost more to have programs specifically designed to address the developmental needs of middle-aged and older faculty, to have programs specifically designed for this?)

Well, yes, it will, in the sense that it will address a series of questions that we've been able to ignore and that will mean we will have more needs. It doesn't mean that we can't refocus the money we already have but inevitably it means that we will (garbled).

13 (Question: Of all the activities you listed, which have been the most successful for the middle-aged faculty?)

Well, I probably think this is the one that's most [successful] for all ages of faculty, but certainly for older faculty, and that is our use of faculty study groups and what I call long-range intellectual discussions that go on for years and years and years, but people move in and out of them. . . . Most of these issues come out of our interdisciplinary studies. It's a place where a group of faculty coalesce around an issue that serves individual needs as well as the small group. And it directly affects their teaching and the nature of those groups has been such that several things have been allowed to happen there. But it is built on the fact that some of the faculty have already learned to work together in a collegial setting. Our experience has been that

the most important ingredient in those study groups has been, and this we've gotten verified over and over again by people from the outside, who've come in and participated or sat and watched, is the willingness of the faculty to say they don't know anything about this area to each other. [This] is the ground on which we function. I gather considerably more a sense of freedom to say "I don't really know what you're talking about." And, then, when you've said that, you're perfectly able when someone says that to you, to be able to use your expertise to do that. There is a collegial model that has developed there. And, we also have found that it doesn't matter a whole lot . . . what we do is provide a book that cuts across, that will attract at least seven people. . . . And, if it's interdisciplinary and if it's maybe not in its scholarship, but at least in its ramifications, it's already a problem that people are already working on, it will move them forward both individually and as a group. And what we do is provide a free book. We usually provide it so we're reading it a chapter a week. We meet for however many weeks it takes to finish the book, usually for an hour. Sometimes we have appointed leaders, and sometimes we don't. The leaders are not designed to be experts, they're not teaching this book. What they're doing is helping us ramble through this book. And we often choose books that have a . . . we're not afraid to use a bad book because of the fact that it provokes better discussion. . . . We almost always start in those discussions with something like: "What have you learned?" or "Where is this person off the wall?" or "What critical judgment do you bring?" or some wide open thing like that. It's very unstructured. And it's perfectly legitimate to just tear a book to shreds.

(Question: Do you always participate?)

Oh, I do. Often not in any significant leadership role, although, I do, partly because I can't decide not to. Actually, there were a few times when we have funded a small group to do a select or exclusive review. . . . But most of them we organize and set up and get the books, and make the arrangements. Then it just goes.

(Question: How do you measure success?)

That's very hard to do. I almost never do a formal evaluation on that. . . . Very informally, in the sense that people consistently come. They come to them initially, they keep coming back to them, they talk about them, they talk about how to use them in their courses, not necessarily that book, but that kind of content or issue. . . . Well, the other thing is, you see, we had no money to do this until (garbled) . . . , and they all, like any other faculty, perceive themselves as too busy. So, if they don't come, you know it isn't working. It's as simple as that. My early experience [helped me to learn] that if you can't produce something that really meets a need, you're not going to draw anybody. So you

can judge partly whether they are there as to whether (garbled). We have no rewards. . . . As I said, we could not have moved into it as quickly as we did without the interdisciplinary work that had already been done in planning, in seminars. So that that was the real breakthrough in this institution. And, even then, when I first started, there was a great deal of. . . . We very seldom had any "one-upmanship" operating, which is what happens in institutions. We haven't had that, but there was much more hesitancy to say, "I haven't the slightest idea where you people are going or what this conversation is all about. Somebody tell me!" And it very often takes somebody to say that to cut to the root of what's going on. . . .

14. (Question: Which have been the most successful for older faculty? How do you measure success?)

Well, I would say it's the same thing, except that there are some older faculty who've never significantly participated in this collegiality. And for them the most significant ones are the individual awards. [They ask] for something and we give them money to do something. . . . About half of the senior faculty have participated actively in this collegial sense. I wouldn't say that they don't value the individual awards because they do, but I think that they would feel that the most ongoing, sustaining, useful part is the collegial experience. Most of the senior faculty are sustained by the . . . colleagueship. . . . Their teaching is terribly important, but it's the colleagueship of both students and faculty that sustains them.

15. (Question: There are several activities that I am specifically interested in for their potential value in addressing needs of middle-aged and older faculty. You have indicated that you have these on your campus. I would like to know in more detail the processes involved in their use on your campus; some of them you have already answered:)

a. Flexible sabbatical leaves--What I mean by the use of a flexible sabbatical leave is really the use of a personal leave. . . . The institution has a really quite acceptable (garbled). I don't know of any request for a personal leave that hasn't been seriously considered. That I think is taken to the Faculty Affairs Committee as well as to the Dean, but, very often, . . . I have a feeling that the Faculty Affairs Committee is not consulted as seriously as it obviously is in other areas. My sense is that when those cases are made they are made, usually to the President or the Dean.

b. Flexible leaves of absence (answered in a. above).

c. Systematic evaluations by students for promotion decisions--In the Faculty Affairs Committee procedures that they do with . . . for two-year, four-year, and ten-year review and

promotions, one of the systematic [parts] of all those reviews is, I think three steps that involve students. One is that all faculty are supposed to have student evaluation forms filled out at the end of every course and submit it to the Dean. They don't all do that, but they are supposed to do it. Anyone who is up for tenure or promotion must do that for at least the two semesters preceding . . . (garbled). Then there is, those are looked at carefully. There is a student committee that is chosen . . . I'm not absolutely positive. It's in the handbook, all the mechanisms on how they are chosen. The faculty has some way of agreeing to a certain number of those students, and some of them are chosen at random, and they are chosen from majors, and they are chosen from nonmajors, and they are chosen from among advisees. So there is always a student committee. And the student committee looks at the student evaluations as does the faculty committee, and they make a recommendation to the Faculty Affairs Committee. . . .

(Question: How do the faculty react to this?)

It's become such a natural part of the experience that I don't think they react. Then, too, if the faculty has not been granted tenure or has gotten a negative response, . . . they are apt to want to look very carefully at the student response, which is a good place to be looking, actually. And sometimes call into question, more than they call into question their peers' [evaluations]. But I don't think, it's not a major issue. . . .

d. Systematic evaluations by students for formative purposes--Well, I guess that would really be our two-year and four-year reviews, and that's what our voluntary senior faculty reviews would be. . . .

e. Self-assessment--That's also a part of all these reviews. That's the formal place it is. The Dean has a yearly conference with every faculty member which is an informal kind of setting. . . . Mostly that goes into what you are anticipating working on in your future plans. . . . And, then, I do a lot of problem-solving with people as they come [after evaluation].

f. Analysis of in-class video tapes--We don't do very much of that. We have an Associate who does do it. He's our retired Associate. [We have] people at the media center who are very good at it, and we urge faculty to do it. . . . When they have either chosen to look at it with a . . . , or by themselves, . . . or in a small group, sometimes the support group. . . . But we have not used that technique as much as we have wanted. We did try very hard for awhile to use it in advising because we were concerned about the dynamics in the advising. But that's been about four years ago. It's underdeveloped. We use it some, but not as much as we should.

g. Formal and/or informal evaluation by colleagues--In all of

them, the faculty can solicit letters of recommendation. . . . They solicit, so they know that there are, I can't remember whether it's two or three, choices that are in their camp. Each department will take action on it. Every time someone is up for a review or a promotion, that is announced to the faculty and those at-large are requested. So those will go into the dossier and many faculty respond to it, those [get] invitations. . . .

h. Study groups within the institution--(already discussed in interview question 14.)

i. Support groups within the institution--(already discussed in interview question 14.)

j. Mentoring system--Our mentoring system is informal at one level and formal at another. The informal way is, you know, people just find somebody they want to attach themselves to or somebody attaches themselves to someone that does that. A lot of that evolves particularly in a collegial setting because people really know that other people . . . (garbled). The use of our Faculty Development Associates is the closest thing that we come to a formal setting where the faculty nominate and we designate people who are available for that official kind of counseling. We have three, sometimes four of those at a time, so that there's a variety of people they can associate with. We had for awhile assigned a senior faculty to every new faculty member. That didn't really work very well. I mean, it helped people get through a few hurdles. By and large, chairpersons were quite available to faculty at that time, and we found that the retired faculty member who is one of our Associates, plus our three Associates, are much more neutral people. . . .

Question: Do you plan to enlarge the Senior Associate concept to inviting other senior faculty to do the same thing?)

At one point, we had two senior faculty members doing it. One of them sort of backed away and finally said she didn't want to do it anymore. I don't think we've talked recently about enlarging it. I think if we found the right person, and we thought that those people were (garbled). . . . The person who backed away felt once she had changed her affiliation with the college that she didn't want to take some part of the initiation. She was available, but she didn't really want to be more aggressive in that posture. . . .

k. Internal consultant to improve academic life of faculty--(already discussed with respect to the role of the Director)

l. Leadership opportunities--We have recognized the problem more than we have solved it. We have done a few things formally out of this office related to the dynamics of leading groups. . . . We do

a part of, there are two orientations: one that is organized by the Dean and one that is related more to faculty development. . . . And we have regularly done sessions in both of those settings that helped the faculty interpret business procedures . . . and how you develop leadership in [this kind of] setting. . . .

m. Committee membership--All of our faculty members do have committee responsibilities.

n. Participation in institutional planning processes-- . . . There have been faculty involved, maybe we're beginning to, we're very bad in this area, but there are designated faculty to participate at committee kinds of levels involved in it. In recent times, every department and every committee has had to do something. . . .

o. Opportunities to consult within the institution--Formally and informally, yes. And I'm aware that some parts of that I [would not know about].

p. Availability of personal counseling to faculty--A lot of faculty go actually to the Academic Dean. . . . Some come to me, and some to the Associates. The Director of our Counseling Services is really for students. . . . She does a lot of initial counseling and does referrals, and it's part of our medical insurance to cover psychological counseling for faculty to cover a period of time. . . . [The Counselor] was telling him [a personnel officer] she was upset with the number of [faculty] who are in counseling right now. . . . Her sense is that there is a high percentage. . . . We're trying to figure out at what point the nature of the institution acerbates those personal concerns. . . . I've said I don't know how many times this year, what I want more that anything else is to talk with two or three Deans who've been Deans or Provosts in the institution for 15 or 20 years. I just want somebody who can give some longitudinal sense of [these issues]. . . . Because it's been a common group experience, how do you get an individual voice that has authority is a very real problem [on campus]. . . .

q. Office for faculty career planning and/or counseling--(The Director was not sure why she checked this activity on the questionnaire.)

r. Opportunities and facilities for physical exercise programs--We have the combination here on campus of our own physical education plant and the YMCA sharing a branch in our building. Faculty have access to both programs at no cost. . . . And that means that there are available on campus a swimming pool and running facilities, a track.

(Question: Do they take advantage of it?)

Yes, many of them do. And the Student Personnel Office is trying to design a wellness program that will include faculty. . . .

s. Institutional support for professional activities--[It comes from the Academic Dean's office] but it also comes from our individual grants, and a Research Fund, and a Program Development Fund. And what we do there is where there is a question, we ask people to write down what they want to do and why they want to do it, and then we figure out whose pocket it ought to come out of. . . .

16. (Question: Is it your perception that faculty understand that participation in the activities you offer is indeed faculty development and is it offered for that purpose?)

Well, I don't think we communicate anything else. . . . Everything we send out is in the area of faculty development . . . I think there's no question about that. For our people who question, for instance, one of the things I do that irritates a few people, I keep attendance, nobody ever sees me keep attendance, but I do know who participates in everything, and I analyze faculty participation for the Faculty Development Committee once every year as an internal check on [all we do]. . . . None of that material is ever available in any promotion, tenure, or anything like that, but the Committee does have that information and does scrutinize on what we recommend on the basis of that. Now, some people know that we do that. They feel, thus, that there is some sort of internal checking system. . . . and we do try to assure them that there isn't, [that] the only reason we do that is statistical. Also, I think you have to build a reference if you're building a program . . . but never in the sense of [checking on] an individual. . . . In several cases in the past when we've seen a pattern where for several years nobody from a department has done anything and [there has been] a real underutilization of funds from the activity fund in a particular department, we have [gone] to the department, somebody from the Committee and myself, and said, "If you don't need it, fine, but if you're into something that we're not aware that's available, then we can change it or modify it or plan it yourself." So, sometimes there are a few people who feel nervous about that aspect . . . [as if] they're being evaluated. . . . One of the things I do regularly say, and I don't mean it insignificantly, I very often say to someone who comes and asks us about the program, that we design things for people to learn, but we also design things for people to enjoy learning. If we're not having any fun in doing what we're doing, we're probably not going to be doing it. That's partly because we don't have a reward system, but also because I would want to foster a sense of development that doesn't have to be tedious. I think that we can learn in ways that are not necessarily fun and games, but that we'll be challenging somebody where they really need to be challenged. . . . That's one of the marvelous advantages of not

being tied directly into the evaluation.

(Question: I get the sense that you evaluate your own program. Do you have the faculty participate in any kind of evaluation of the program?)

The Center was to be evaluated by the total faculty at the end of three years to decide whether it was to be done again. That evaluation was done. I think it was at the end of three years. Then, my performance in this job was just evaluated this year by the total faculty. There were two aspects of that: an evaluation of my performance and an evaluation of the program. . . .

(Question: Did you design that?)

I helped design it. And the Faculty Development Committee . . . (garbled) and the Faculty Affairs Committee. We do a pretty vigorous year-by-year evaluation. . . .

17. (Question: What specific efforts does your institution make to link what the individual faculty member does and what the faculty as a whole do with the institution's goals and purposes?)

Well, we do it sometimes brilliantly and sometimes not at all. Really, the problem is that is when we do it not at all. We do it very ineffectively. That's an editorial comment. One of the dilemmas there is that this is an institution that has a very broad purpose. It is in the nature of the administrative leadership that we have had--and they all say it is in the nature of the faculty they have to work with--I'm not as sure about the second part of that as I am about the first part of it--is that there is an extraordinary hesitancy to formulate specific goals for the institution . . . and a great desire to do everything and anything possible we can. So it is very hard for a faculty member to know whether their work is really significantly a part of something that has never been articulated as being more important than other things. Therein causes a great deal of our dilemma because people make major commitments of their personal energies that they think the college will be pleased with, and they do not get sufficient kinds of financial and, much more, psychological reward for doing that. On the other hand, the college is in a state of health . . . because of the kind of enormous freedom and flexibility that has been allowed to the faculty. Anything you do is just marvelous. And anybody that wants to do something can get a sense of being just marvelous if you can sustain yourself during the periods when no one else is going to sustain you. You will not comfortably get it from an administrator. . . . (The Director here gave an example of trying to tie a specific program to institutional goals. She went directly to the Provost in the effort; he thought the rationale of this specific program was built in sufficiently to justify it.) In lots of institutions, it seems to me, there would be a clearer way to connect my work to

something [in the institution] so I wouldn't have to make a rationale in some way. I'm not the only one. . . . The faculty are always having to scratch around and figure out how you build a rationale that fits into [the institution's goals] because the momentum comes from the bottom instead of from the top. But you have to have enough institutional support to sustain it . . . whatever it is. And so a lot of effort has to go into building that internal support all the way along the line and to tying it to a larger purpose. Nobody wants to do something that isn't tied to the larger purpose, but sometimes you have to . . . make (garbled) steps yourself in order to make the connection clear. . . . Because we have so few things coming from the top down, directives, a lot of energy has to be (garbled) to tie [what you do] to a larger scheme of things. . . . And you don't know until after you've invested a lot of energy which way it's going to go. . . . For people who have no initiative and are waiting for . . . administrators [to direct them], . . . it's a terrible place to be. For people who are self-starters, and can see a variety of opportunitities there is a lot of possibility to do things. . . .

18. (Question: Is it your belief that the faculty understand they make a definite and valuable contribution to the institution?)

Well, they all believe that they do, and they all believe that the institution doesn't tell them often enough, but there's nobody that questions that they do.

(Question: How did you arrive at that belief?)

My sense of that? Oh, probably just in conversation, and also just watching people's lives. It is what sustains people in the sense, as I said, of collegiality of students and faculty, but also part of that is that there is a real educational mission that is going on here. It doesn't matter what the Business Manager or somebody else thinks about (garbled). . . . They have a real compassion in the sense that this is what is going on here; they have really given themselves to [the effort]. Even in the worst period that's what people [feel]. So you hear this now when people are excited about what's going on and [when they are] discouraged.

19. (Question: Is there anything else I should know that would help me to understand your program as it addresses the developmental needs of middle-aged and older persons?)

(Laughter). I guess the one thing that we haven't talked about per se that I think is probably operating in the school, and I know it has to operate as far as I'm concerned, is that trust is a significant factor. How you measure it, how you know, that is just true in the college in general--that for me to be able to do what I'm going to do, or for anybody else to be able to do this work, there has got to be a quality of trust in my performance or anybody's performance, but it (garbled) genuine interest in the

institution. Fundamental to that is the concern, a trust in the concern of the institution. . . . And, it's not that that's not sometimes violated. . . . I think the other thing is . . . the faculty had to make a significant trust leap in reference to me because I don't have a Ph.D., because I came along as a spouse initially. . . . On the other hand, when I was first hired, I was hired very definitely in Women's Studies by the President because he did know me and he did trust me as a person, and there's no question there. . . . So, I have had to have that sense of trust with the administration. For some people that has been very difficult to give. . . . Trust is a major factor in this institution.